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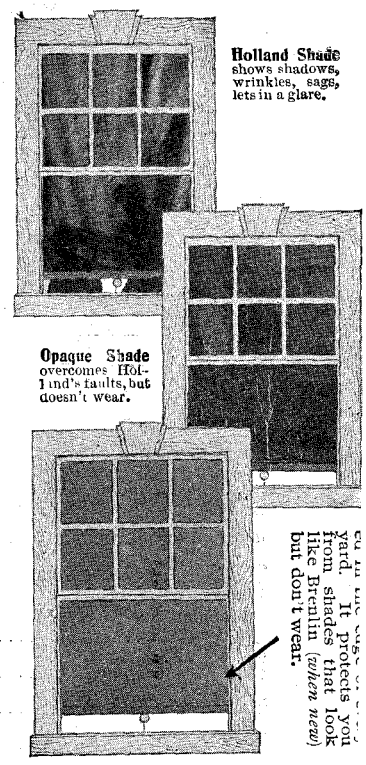
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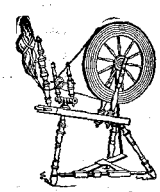

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The Outlook

15 MAY, 1909

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THE COMMODITIES DECISION: ITS IMMEDIATE EFFECT

The immediate practical effect of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the so-called Commodities Case can be stated in few words and is easily understandable. The Court holds that the law forbids a railway corporation to transport a commodity which it owns or in which it has a *legal* interest *at the time of the transportation;* but it does not forbid a railway corporation from manufacturing or mining, provided it has in good faith before the transportation parted with the ownership; nor from owning the stock of a mining corporation and so determining how the mine shall be operated and at what price and in what market and to what extent the product of the mine shall be sold. Thus it may do indirectly what it is illegal to do directly. For example (the illustration is ours, not the Court's), the Pennsylvania Railroad Company may not own and operate a coal mine, but it may own a controlling amount of the stock in a corporation which owns a coal mine. If it does own a controlling amount of the stock, it may, by the election of a president and Board of Directors, control the management of that coal mine. There will be two corporations, one owning the railway, the other owning the mine; but the railway corporation will practically own the mining corporation. The Board of Directors of the mining corporation may conduct the mine without a profit or even at a loss, but by causing the mining corporation to pay the railway corporation such a price for the transportation of the coal as will recoup the real owners, the railway corporation, for the loss suffered by the nominal owner, the coal corporation, there will be no loss to the real owners. The railway may then charge an independent coal operator in the same field the same price it charges the coal corporation which it owns. The independent coal operator cannot complain of the railway corporation for discrimination; for it does not discriminate. The extravagant price it charges to the independent operator it also charges to the dependent coal company. But the independent coal operator cannot recoup his losses, and as a result must either lower the wages he pays, raise the price of the coal he sells, or go out of business. The reader will observe that we do not affirm that this has been done or will be done; but that it might be done, and to do it would not be illegal unless the courts could be convinced that it was done for the express purpose of injuring the independent operator—a matter very difficult to prove. This is our understanding of the *effect* of the decision of the Supreme Court.

THE COMMODITIES DECISION: HISTORY

To interpret the decision of the Supreme Court and indicate its relation to industrial progress and its probable ultimate effect is much more difficult, and requires a brief chapter of railway history. Mr. Emlen Hare Miller, of the Philadelphia bar, who has made an exhaustive study of the genesis of the Commodities Case, has called our attention to the fact that in the early part of the nineteenth century, say the early thirties, railways were looked upon as public highways on which every man who could procure the proper carriages and apparatus would have a right to travel. Many of the early railway charters were framed on this idea. Thus an act of the Legislature of New Hampshire in 1842 provided that railway corporations, whenever required by the Legislature, should permit all persons to use locomotives and cars on their roads. So the Railway Clauses Consolidation Act, in England

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(1842), provided for the using of railways by all persons who might choose to put carriages thereon. That "railways are public highways, primarily for public convenience, and are subject to Government control and regulation," was, in different forms and phrases, affirmed by different State courts. This principle came to be applied to all instruments of inter-State commerce under the decision of the United States Supreme Court in the case of Gibbons vs. Ogden (1824), in which it was held that all inter-State commerce is subject to the exclusive jurisdiction of the Federal Government—a rule in that case applied to commerce on the navigable rivers, but subsequently recognized as equally applicable to railways between the States. The effect of this development of public opinion, as represented by judicial and legal action, both State and Federal, was to make the railway company subject to the general principles of law applicable to common carriers. It was expressed by the saying that, as the Sabbath was made for man, not man for the Sabbath, so railways were made for common carriership, not common carriership for the railways. This development, however, was not uniform. The State of Pennsylvania, for the purpose of promoting the development of its coal, iron, and lumber, enacted legislation in 1869 which doubtless had the effect to promote such development, but also had the effect to make the railways coal-miners as well as common carriers, and resulted in a new constitutional provision which forbade in the future such combination of functions. Analogous enactments followed in other States, not so specific in terms, but having the same general aim, namely, to confine the railway corporation to the work of administering the modern public highways as common carriers in the interest of the public.

THE COMMODITIES DECISION: ITS LEGAL GROUNDS

Such, in very general terms, were the conditions when, in 1906, Congress enacted that it should be thereafter unlawful for any railway to transport from one State to another any commodity, other than timber and its manufactured products, produced by it or under its authority, "or which it may own in whole or in part, or in which it may have any interest direct or indirect," except such as are necessary for its use as a common carrier. Certain railway corporations which were engaged in coal-mining have obeyed this law by disposing of their coal stocks. Others combined to set aside the law on the ground that it was unconstitutional, both because it transcended the power conferred on Congress over inter-State commerce, and because it violated that clause of the Constitution (the Fifth Amendment) which provides that "no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation." The United States Court of Appeals, Judge Gray rendering the decision, held the act of Congress unconstitutional (see The Outlook, September 19, 1908, pp. 94–96). The Supreme Court of the United States has now reversed this decision, not, however, on the ground that the railway corporations can be compelled by law to part with their stock interest in coal corporations, but on the ground that owning a majority of the stock in a coal corporation does not violate the provisions of the law; that the railway corporation which owns the majority of stock in a coal corporation does not produce the coal mined by such coal corporation, nor have any *legal* interest in the coal so produced and delivered to it for transportation. Its precise language, in the official abstract given to the daily press, is as follows: "The provision of the Commodities Clause relating to inter-State interest, direct or indirect, does not embrace an interest which a carrier may have in a producing corporation as the result of ownership by the carrier of stock in such corporation, irrespective of the amount of stock which the carrier may own in such corporation, provided the corporation has been organized in good faith." The question whether Congress can enact a law prohibiting a railway corporation from owning stock in another corporation was not before the Court, and its decision throws no light on that question. It simply decides that Congress has not passed such a law; that in the law which Congress has passed there is nothing to prevent a railway cor-

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poration from owning stock to any amount in a mining or manufacturing corporation; in other words, to quote again from the official summary, "Ownership of stock in a producing company by a railway company does not cause it, as the owner of the stock, to have a legal interest in the commodity manufactured, etc., by the producing corporation."

THE COMMODITIES DECISION: WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?

The people who desired to break up the combination between coal corporations and railway corporations supposed that the amendment to the Hepburn Act, passed in 1906, had accomplished this result. It is to us very clear, on a careful reading of the opinion of Justice White, that Congress did not accomplish this result, and that the majority in the Senate did not even mean to accomplish this result. It is clear that the Pennsylvania Railroad Company and the Susquehanna Coal Company are two distinct legal persons, although the railway owns all the shares of the coal company. They are no more one person than Jones and Brown would become one person because Brown contracted to give all his time and transferred all his property to Jones. The coal that is mined by the Susquehanna Coal Company is not mined by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, and it is legally owned by the Susquehanna Coal Company, not by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. Nor has the Pennsylvania Railroad Company a *legal* interest in the coal so mined by the Susquehanna Coal Company; for, legally, interest is "the right of property which a man has in a thing" (Bouvier's Law Dictionary), or "a right in property, or to some of those uses or benefits from which the property is inseparable" (Century Dictionary). The fact that the Pennsylvania Railroad Company owns all the stock of the Susquehanna Coal Company does not give it a right of property in the coal, nor a right to any of the uses or benefits of that property. If, for example, some of the coal should be carried off from the grounds of the Susquehanna Coal Company, the Pennsylvania Railroad Company could not maintain a suit for its recovery. It was contended before the United States Supreme Court by the United States Government that the language of the Hepburn statute, "interest direct or indirect," must be taken to include the practical though indirect interest which the Pennsylvania Railroad Company has in the coal owned by a mining company all of whose stock the railway owns. And this was the judgment of Judge Harlan in a very brief dissenting opinion: "In my judgment, the act, reasonably and properly construed, according to its language, includes within its prohibitions a railroad company transporting coal, if, at the time, it is the owner, legally or equitably, of stock—certainly if it owns a majority or all the stock—in the company which mined, manufactured, or produced, and then owns the coal which is being transported." Judge White's opinion reciting the action of the United States Senate makes it clear that the Senate intended the narrower legal, not the more general and popular, meaning to be attached to the word "interest:"

> In the Senate, where the clause originated, an amendment in specific terms, causing the clause to embrace stock ownership, was rejected, and immediately upon such rejection an amendment, expressly declaring that interest, direct or indirect, was intended, among other things, to embrace the prohibition of carrying a commodity manufactured, mined, produced or owned by a corporation in which a railroad company was interested as a stockholder, was also rejected. . . . It cannot in reason be assumed that there is a duty to extend the meaning of a statute beyond its legal sense upon the theory that a provision which was expressly excluded was intended to be included.

Any reader who regrets the conclusion reached that under the law a railway may practically carry on mining and manufacturing operations—as we do regret it—must make his complaint, not against the court which has given the only interpretation of the statute which is consistent with either its phraseology or its history, but against the Senate that passed an act which appeared to the people to mean one thing while it really meant another.

THE COMMODITIES DECISION: FUNCTION OF THE COURTS

The readers of The Outlook may perhaps remember that one of the grounds on which, in the court below, the commodities clause of the Hepburn Bill was set

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aside was, as declared by Judge Gray, the evils which he foresaw would flow from such a construction of the Constitution as would permit Congress to exercise such control over the railways; they may also remember that The Outlook, commenting on this aspect of the decision, said: "We do not understand it to be the function of the courts to determine whether legal enactments are expedient or desirable, but simply whether they accord with the principles of Constitutional law." We frankly confess our gratification in finding this principle strongly affirmed by the United States Supreme Court. Says Justice White: "We at once summarily dismiss all the elaborate suggestions made in argument as to the alleged wrong to result from the enforcement of the clause, if it be susceptible of the construction which the Government has placed upon it. We do this because obviously mere suggestions of inconvenience or harm are wholly irrelevant, as they cannot be allowed to influence us in determining the question of the Constitutional power of Congress to enact the clause." It is for the Congress, not for the courts, to determine whether greater injuries will grow out of railway rate regulation or unregulated railways, and for the courts to determine what power the people have given to Congress to deal with the problem.

THE COMMODITIES DECISION: ITS ULTIMATE EFFECT

In the judgment of The Outlook, the remedy for the evils which great combinations have produced is not destroying combination and attempting to institute competition; it is Government regulation. But this principle applies to combinations between different persons or corporations carrying on the same business; it might not apply to combining different functions in the same person. A combination of two physicians working for the health of the community might be very desirable, and yet the combination of the functions of physician and undertaker in the same person employed by a poorhouse, very undesirable. It is for the interest of the community that railways should be encouraged to combine under proper Government regulation, but it may not be desirable that the dissimilar functions of manufacturing and transportation should be combined in the same corporation. It appears to us as presumptively undesirable. The well-being of the community is peculiarly dependent on a free, fair, and untrammeled administration of the public highways in the public interest. If an administrator of a public highway has other special interests to serve, as those of a coal mine which is in competition with a rival coal mine, the temptation will be strong not to administer the highway as much in the interests of its rival as in its own interest. The railway should be a *common* carrier, that is, a carrier for the entire community on terms common to them all, and the presumption is that it will fulfill this function with greater equity if it has no other function to fulfill. Nor is it as impossible for the railways which are engaged in coal-mining to separate themselves from the coal-mining as some newspaper writers would have us suppose. It may be difficult, but cannot be impossible, for them to dispose of their coal stocks, for some of them have already done so. Those persons who think that railway corporations in the United States can, in spite of the demand of the people, permanently continue to carry on the business of a coal operator, are, we think, short-sighted. There is one very simple method by which the people can compel such separation of functions if they are determined so to do. Congress has exclusive jurisdiction over the instruments of inter-State commerce. The body which has forbidden inter-State commerce on the sea to be carried on except by ships American built, can forbid inter-State commerce upon the land to be carried on except by railways which have received a Federal charter. And it can make it a condition of granting a Federal charter that the corporation receiving it shall carry on no other business and own no stock in any other corporation. We do not believe that it will be necessary for the people to exercise this power, but that they possess it and can exercise it if it becomes necessary we think is settled beyond reasonable doubt by the decisions of the courts and the practice of the Congress throughout the history of the country.

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DIPLOMATIC APPOINTMENTS

President Taft has signalized his assumption of office by certain transfers and promotions in the diplomatic service. Among these none are more important than the two made last week. They follow the transfer some weeks since of Mr. John G. A. Leishman, at present Ambassador to Turkey, to be Ambassador to Italy; the appointment of Mr. Henry C. Ide, late Governor-General of the Philippines, as Minister to Spain; and the appointment of Mr. Charles M. Sherrill, of New York City, to be Minister to Argentina—appointments which have since been confirmed by the Senate. That body, we trust, will immediately confirm the appointments made last week of Mr. Oscar S. Straus as Ambassador to Turkey, and of Mr. William Woodville Rockhill as Ambassador to Russia. Mr. Straus has already served under three Presidents as our diplomatic representative in Turkey. He was sent to Constantinople first by President Cleveland and remained until the Harrison administration was well under way. In 1897 President McKinley sent him again to the Turkish capital, and he remained there as Minister until 1900. During his second sojourn in Constantinople Mr. Straus had a somewhat strenuous time in the endeavor to induce the lately deposed Sultan, Abdul-Hamid, to adjust American claims according to the principles of international equity. Mr. Straus's success at Constantinople marked him from the start as by far the most available man to return to the position, now an ambassadorship. In addition, the appointment of an ex-Cabinet member would certainly assure the new constitutional Government of Turkey that our Government sympathizes with its aims, and wishes to show its sympathy by appointing a prominent Government official to represent us in Constantinople. Mr. Straus's success there was largely obtained because of his own sympathy with the desire of the best people of all races in the Turkish Empire to end the age-old cruel conflict of race with race and creed with creed, to lighten the equally age-old burden of unequal taxation, and to develop Turkey's resources to the advantage both of her own commercial possibilities and of those of all nations. The next few years may be the most important in Turkish history, not only for Turkey; they may present opportunities to improve diplomatic relations between Turkey and the rest of the world such as have never existed before, and also equally to enhance international commercial relations. Mr. Rockhill's transfer from Peking to St. Petersburg is also a fortunate one. He succeeds Mr. John W. Riddle, who has been Ambassador to Russia since 1906. Mr. Riddle and Mr. Rockhill represent that promotion in our diplomatic service which Secretaries Hay and Root sought to emphasize. Mr. Riddle was appointed Secretary of the American Legation at Constantinople in 1893, was transferred to the secretaryship of our Embassy at St. Petersburg, then became Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General at Cairo, then Minister to Rumania and Servia, and finally Ambassador to Russia. Mr. Rockhill, as early as 1884, was appointed Second Secretary of our Legation at Peking, then became Secretary, then Chargé d'Affaires of our Legation in Korea, was recalled to the State Department and made its Chief Clerk, rose to be Third Assistant and Assistant Secretary of State, was made Minister to Rumania and Servia, then again sent to China as Special Commissioner, became Director of the Bureau of American Republics, and finally Minister to China. In transferring him to St. Petersburg President Taft doubtless has in mind the important part which the Russian Government has played and must play in Far Eastern development, and Mr. Rockhill's first-hand knowledge of Far Eastern affairs.

PEACE IN THE HARD COAL FIELDS

Until March 31, 1912, a Presidential election year, there will be no strikes or lockouts of any serious proportions between the anthracite operators and mine workers. The public has this assurance through the signing of the agreement on April 29 between representatives of the two interests. This agreement, with slight modifications, is based upon the award, made in 1903, by the Anthracite Strike Commission created by President Roosevelt, and continues in existence the Conciliation Board as the

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industrial machinery for settling all controversies that may arise between the employees and officials of the coal-mining companies. The modifications of the terms of the 1903 agreement are regarded by the officials of the United Mine Workers of America as a victory of considerable significance, not so much in the particular advantages they claim to have secured as from the point of view of having forced from the operators any concessions at all, however slight the benefits may be conceded to have been. In each instance since 1903, when the time came for renewing the agreement, the operators have stood firmly in opposition to any concessions whatsoever in its provisions, and the miners have as repeatedly made certain demands. This year is the first time since 1903 that they have secured any changes. These provide for five concessions to the demands of the miners' representatives, as follows: (1) Rates for new work are not to be less than those paid under the Strike Commission's award for old work of a similar kind or character; (2) the arrangement and decisions of the Conciliation Board permitting the collection of dues on the company property and the posting of notices thereon shall continue during the life of this agreement; (3) an employee discharged for being a member of a union shall have a right to appeal his case to the Conciliation Board for final adjustment; (4) any dispute arising at a colliery under the terms of this agreement must first be taken up with the company officials and committee of employees directly interested before it can be brought before the Conciliation Board for final adjustment; (5) employers shall issue pay statements designating the name of the company, of the employee, colliery, amount of wages, and class of work performed. As has been the case since the 1902 strike, the union is not officially recognized by the operators, and yet all their dealings have been with the duly elected officials of the United Mine Workers of America, but only as representatives of the anthracite mine employees. President Lewis, of the Miners' National Union, did not sign the agreement, having stated at the beginning of the negotiations that he would not sign unless the union was recognized officially by the operators as a party to the contract or agreement; but one of the signers on behalf of the anthracite mine workers is E. S. McCullough, vice-president of the National Union. The other signers on the part of the anthracite mine employees are the officials of the three district unions covering the anthracite region; this practically binds the union to an observance of the provisions of this trade agreement. An official view of the working of this agreement since it was entered into in 1903 was given during the course of the negotiations by President Baer, of the Reading system, the head of the anthracite coal combination. "There are some things in the Strike Commission's awards that do not quite suit either side," he said. "That is always so in a matter of decision of controversies. Taking a broad and generous view of the situation in this country to-day, however, and of the state of the market for the last six years, this award of the Strike Commission has been the most satisfactory solution of the labor problem on a large scale that the world has ever seen." There is no doubt whatever that conditions among the anthracite mine employees to-day are vastly improved over those prevailing prior to the strike of 1900, and at the same time no one familiar with these conditions will deny that they are subject to still greater improvement. It is to be hoped that this will be brought about through the peaceful operation of the industrial machinery which has been established in this great industry by the fortunate intervention of President Roosevelt in 1902.

FIXING THE RESPONSIBILITY

Seven men have been indicted by the Federal Grand Jury in New York for conspiracy in connection with the systematic and long-continued frauds by which the American Sugar Refining Company cheated the Government out of duties on over seventy-five million pounds of sugar. The men indicted are Oliver Spitzer, for many years the dock superintendent of the Company in Brooklyn, and the six Company checkers who were uniformly assigned to duty in the scale houses where the fraudulent device was used. These six men were commonly known on the

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docks as the "Big Six." One of them, Thomas Kehoe, was on duty in the scale house on November 20, 1907, when Richard Parr, the special agent of the Treasury Department, discovered the spring which was used to accomplish the fraudulent weighing. Spitzer has already been indicted and tried in Brooklyn for attempted bribery, but he was acquitted, largely because a Government agent, who was with Parr when he made his discovery, testified quite differently at the trial from what he had sworn to in making the original complaint. Immediately after the indictments of the seven men had been handed in, the chief counsel for the Sugar Trust issued a statement. It read: "The officers of the American Sugar Refining Company have no comment to make in regard to the indictments found against Oliver Spitzer and certain of the men formerly employed under him beyond this, that they are as anxious as the United States Attorney can be that these men and any others shall be punished if they are guilty, and that they are and have been co-operating to that end with the United States Attorney. None of the men concerned are now in the employment of the Company. Spitzer was dismissed immediately after the recent trial before Judge Holt, the other men mentioned, on Thursday of this week." The progress of this case on the part of the Government has thus far been eminently satisfactory. A great corporation has been caught pilfering from the Government systematically, "in season and out of season," for years. In pursuit of its thefts it has been shown to have tried, not always unsuccessfully, to debauch public servants. It has been convicted of the fraud and penalized by a fine of $134,000. It has been compelled to give up two million dollars of ill-gotten gains. It has been pilloried before the world as a petty cheat. But the personal responsibility for those acts has not yet been placed. In a circular letter addressed to the stockholders with the approval of the Board of Directors, the Secretary of the Company, Mr. C. R. Heike, under date of April 29, asserted that penalties ought not to be imposed upon the Company "because of the unauthorized acts of subordinates." This circular does not reflect credit on Mr. W. B. Thomas, President of the Company, on the other officers, or their counsel. At all events, the Government does not accept it; it is determined to find out whether the phrase "unauthorized acts" can be substantiated in court. Seven men are now under indictment. Their measure of guilt will be determined by the trial. But they are subordinates, and not all the ingenuity of the Sugar Company's lawyers has been able even to suggest how those subordinates could profit by the frauds of which they were the instruments except as their superiors rewarded them with a little additional pay. The frauds benefited the Company, and the Company alone. And in that fact lies a great responsibility for the officers and directors of the corporation—and a double responsibility. First, they should clean house; and to do that it is not sufficient to follow the Government and discharge those employees against whom the Government attorneys can make a case. They should search out the ultimate responsibility for those contemptible fraudulent practices, even if that responsibility should prove to rest on some one not now connected with the Company, and help the Government and public opinion to put the penalty where it rightly belongs. Secondly, they should resolve and make certain that the affairs of the Sugar Company shall in the future be carried on in the new spirit rather than in the old, in the spirit of public service rather than with contempt or scorn for the rights of the community. Only by such a discharge of responsibility can the officers and directors of the American Sugar Refining Company wipe out the stain of their organization's long-continued and systematic rascality.

VETOES NEEDED

No one should be surprised that the New York Legislature should have passed once more a bill requiring the Board of Education in New York City to pay the same salaries to women teachers that are paid to men teaching the same grades in the public schools. When a similar bill was passed before, the Mayor of the city vetoed it. It was then passed again by the

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Legislature over the Mayor's veto, but was vetoed again by the Governor. The fact that this bill, if it became a law, would have called for considerable increase in expenditure had some weight in determining its former fate. The arguments on behalf of the present bill are plausible; they may be summed up in the single sentence that discrimination against the teacher on account of sex is so gross an injustice that it should be prohibited by the Legislature of the State. The fact that these arguments were presented to the Legislature by women, who, by the way, have no vote, gave the arguments a greater force. It was a case where an appeal to reason was reinforced by an appeal to gallantry; and such an appeal a Legislature finds it difficult to resist. The final decision as to whether the bill shall become law or not rests with the Mayor and the Governor. If the Mayor vetoes it, the bill will be killed; if not, it will go before the Governor for approval or disapproval. There are two reasons, either of them alone conclusive, why the bill should be vetoed. In the first place, it violates the principle of home rule on which the American public school system is built. It would do much to confirm the practice of legislative interference with the local mangement of local schools. In the second place, the bill is based on the assumption that the woman who teaches a certain number of hours in a certain grade does the same work that a man does who teaches the same number of hours in the same grade. This assumption has no justification. Just as there is work that a woman does which a man cannot do in the schools, so there is work that a man does which a woman cannot do. In particular, there are certain grades in the school which greatly need the services of men as teachers. Such men will not be available unless the demand for them is made effective by a higher salary. To say that a woman who teaches in those grades does equal work with a man is to say what is not in accordance with facts. Discrimination between sex is not a matter of law; and any attempt to abolish such discrimination is an attempt to disregard natural conditions. It may require some courage for the Mayor and for the Governor to express disapproval of this bill; but courage of this sort has been more than once exhibited by both Mayor McClellan and Governor Hughes. Some other vetoes are needed. The bills which the Legislature passed implicitly, if not explicitly, presenting the New York Central Railroad with a franchise in perpetuity will, we expect, be promptly vetoed, as they ought to be.

THE TURKISH ATROCITIES

Last week revealed additional Turkish massacres of Armenians, not only in Asia Minor, but also in northern Syria. Fortunately, Beirût, the chief port and city of the Syrian coast, with important American educational and religious institutions, has been fairly protected. At Kessab, however, near the coast, half-way between the cities of Latakia and Alexandretta, there was not only massacre, but three-fourths of the native houses and an American school were destroyed. The Turkish reserves still on guard, having taken part in the massacre, only add to the terror of the situation. The Vali, or Governor, of the vilayet or province is reported as giving to the Kessab fugitives every possible care, and in these acts of mercy he has been joined by the better class of Mohammedans. In addition to the Armenian Christian element at Kessab there is a Protestant congregation of about two thousand members under the control of the American Board (Congregational). The other American missions in Syria are largely under the control of the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions; those in Asia Minor are mostly under the control of the Congregational Board. The city of Adana, in Asia Minor, where the massacres originated, is still demoralized. The American schools and mission residences are being guarded by the recently arrived and better class of Turkish troops. The new Vali, however, has not as yet inspired much confidence. His predecessor is alleged actually to have distributed arms to the assaulting Mohammedans. In the city there are reported to be three thousand dead, and in the vilayet, or province, no less than twenty thousand. There must be at least forty thousand homeless and destitute Armenians. Ap-

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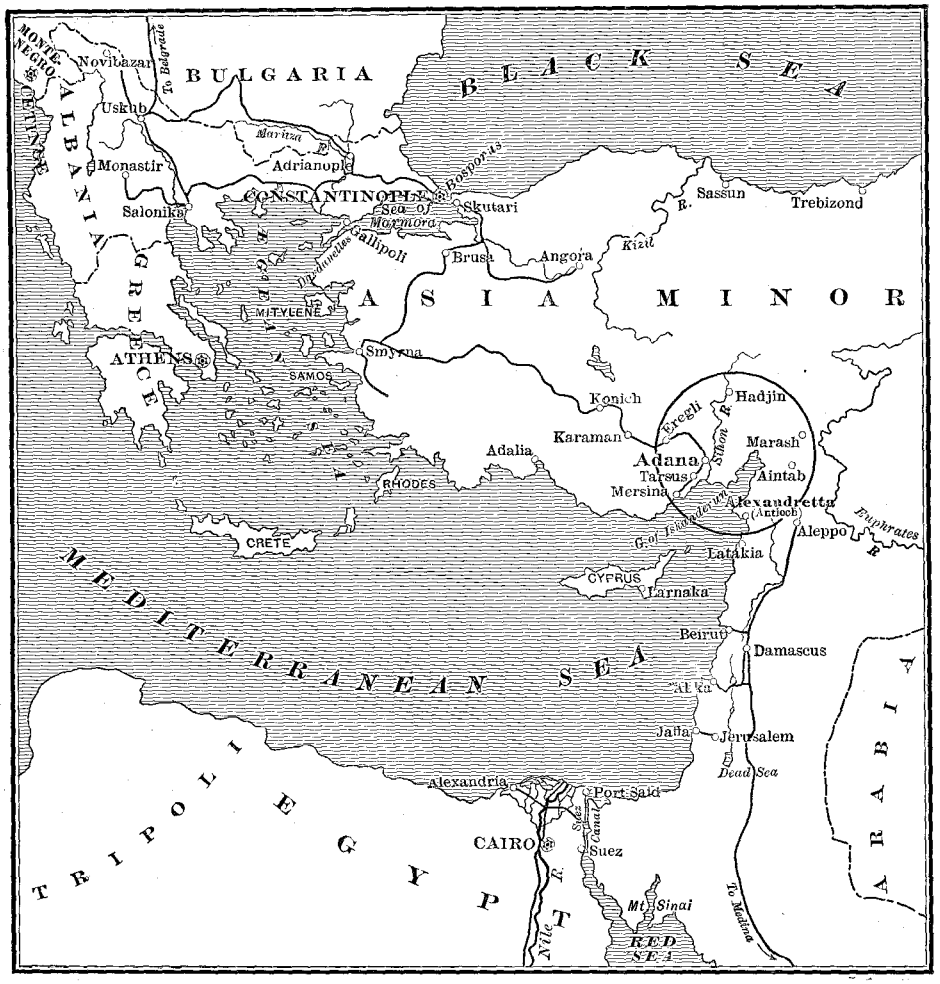

DRAWN FOR THE OUTLOOK BY F. W. MOORE

THE SCENE OF THE RECENT MASSACRES

The country included in the circle covers the disturbed districts about Adana; the diameter of the circle is about one hundred and forty miles. A smaller area of disturbance exists southwest of Damascus on the Syrian coast

prehension is still felt regarding the American missionary stations at Tarsus, the birthplace of the Apostle Paul, half-way between Adana and the port of Mersina, on the Mediterranean's northern shore. Mersina is nearly forty miles from Adana and is connected with it by rail. The Rev. Stephen R. Trowbridge, at Adana, says that while the exact origin of the struggle is unknown, on April 14 a rumor spread among the Armenians that massacring by the Turks had already been begun; that, as a demonstration of self-defense, a volley of shots was fired from the roofs of Christian houses; that this in turn was interpreted by the Mohammedans as an attack; that the word spread like wildfire of an Armenian revolt which must be crushed; that subsequent events showed the acquiescence if not the actual participation by the authorities in the cruel and indiscriminate assaults made by fire, rifle, and sword upon the entire Armenian community, "including our Protestant congregation, which, as a body, has been wholly loyal to the Government;" that the occupation of the minarets of Mohammedan mosques by regular soldiers began at the very outset of the struggle, and that these soldiers, shielded by the parapets, kept up a fusillade into all parts of the Christian quarter; that there were no patrols of soldiers or police for three days; finally, that a plot must have existed

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to destroy all of the fifty thousand Armenians in the vilayet. It is probably true, however, that the attitude of a few Armenian hotheads, previous to the massacre, was provocative. Soon after the proclamation of the Turkish constitution last July, these Armenians became insolent, boasting openly their separatist intentions and their ambition to establish an Armenian kingdom. Such at least is the story that has been sent out. This insubordination stimulated, of course, the very worst passions of the mob when the signal for reaction was received from Constantinople.

MEASURES OF RELIEF

The new Government is evidently attempting to do something towards obliterating the discredit which attaches to its predecessor. Not only have troops been sent to the region of most of the recent massacres (indicated on the accompanying map by the circle of a hundred and forty miles in diameter with Adana not far from its center), but the Turkish Parliament has appropriated a hundred and fifty thousand dollars for the relief of the sufferers. A continuance of such benevolence over a considerable time, however, is necessary to convince many Armenian Christians that the new Government, itself intensely Mohammedan, has any sympathy for them. From the Red Cross fund for the relief of the sufferers, ten thousand dollars is now in the hands of the American Consul at Beirût. In addition, the Red Cross has remitted nearly as much to the American Ambassador at Constantinople. Our Government's efforts toward relief are gratifyingly evident in the departure of the armored cruisers North Carolina and Montana from Gibraltar for the ports of Mersina and Alexandretta. The Department of State hopes that no action on the part of the commanders of the ships will be necessary. The very presence of our war vessels, however, will reassure American residents in Turkey that their interests are being safeguarded, and at the same time will impress the rioters with the fact that their actions are being carefully watched by American sailors. In this connection The Outlook desires to call attention to the admirable text of a memorial signed by many citizens of New York City:

> The undersigned, citizens of New York City, have learned with great satisfaction that measures have been taken by the President for the relief of the situation in Asia Minor. We are thankful that the National Government, which is powerful where individuals are weak, is aroused to the crisis. We are glad to know that vessels of our navy have been despatched to Turkish waters; that the good offices of our Government are enlisted; and that we may cherish the hope of an early termination of the atrocities which are being perpetrated in the Sultan's dominions. That the American Government should take an effective interest in the cause of the oppressed is in line with our most cherished traditions.
>
> While we recognize the fact that the United States Government was not a signatory to the Treaty of Berlin, which dealt with the relations of Turkey to its Christian subjects, we respectfully urge the Department of State to bring to the attention of the Powers of Europe, upon whom the responsibility for the continuation of this condition of affairs rests, and also to the attention of the constitutional Government of Turkey, the strong sense of moral indignation with which the American people regard these unspeakable outrages upon humanity.

THE SHAH FORCED TO YIELD

Last week the Persian Shah granted a constitution to Persia. Thus, once more, the Orient shows that force is practically the only language which its rulers understand and heed. This is the same Shah who took several oaths of fealty to the first Persian constitution before he annulled it. When he succeeded to the throne in January, 1907, he found the country under a constitution which had just been granted by his predecessor. But the present Shah was reactionary, and revoked the constitution as soon as he had a pretext, nearly two years later. Revolution followed. The Constitutionalists occupied a number of cities. The most important was Tabriz, about sixty miles southward from the Aras River, the boundary between Persia and Russia, but separated from the boundary by mountain ridges which make the intervening country difficult to traverse. Tabriz was besieged by the Shah's forces, and was relieved only a few days ago by Cossack cavalry from Transcaucasia sent by the Russian Government. These troops, trained to rough roads and mountaineering, made

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unexpectedly good time in their rush to the city's relief; and the foreign intervention so alarmed the Persian ruler that he consented to do under force what his own subjects might never have gained from him. Russia's intervention is almost as interesting in itself as is the repromulgation of the constitution in Persia. Constitutionalism has apparently now taken such a firm root in Russia itself—so the intervention might indicate—that the Government at St. Petersburg finds it both politic and necessary to urge it upon the Shah. It was not, however, a love of constitutionalism that justified Russia in sending a military force into Persia, but the recognized international right of protecting her own citizens. Her move upon Tabriz was doubtless made in accordance with the recent Anglo-Russian agreement.

FRENCH GOVERNMENT EMPLOYEES

The events of the past week in France excite the sympathy of all lovers of the French Republic. The famous "P. T. T.," as the Post, Telegraph, and Telephone Employees' Association is commonly called, has transformed itself into a syndicate, or union, under the Associations Law. It thus attempts to place itself on the same footing with workmen's unions, with the right to strike against the State, as the workmen have the privilege of striking against private employers. This is the apotheosis of unionism. If successful, the State, with all the apparatus of government, must disappear, and the control of material means pass into the hands of organized labor. Thus also would be realized a certain collectivistic and socialistic ideal. Rightly to understand how the French Government has been brought to this condition, it is necessary to read such a book as Mr. Frederick Lawton's illuminating "Third French Republic" (Lippincott) which gives a capital account of the present French régime. The ambition of certain politicians has encouraged the State servants to form unions, which have been gradually growing stronger. After reading such a volume as this, one is better able to understand that peculiar French temperament which tends towards centralization; a temperament which is probably the cause of the present condition of affairs rather than any one man's individual ambition. But if there is to be a centralization of labor, there is apparently also to be a greater centralization of governmental power, at least as long as M. Clemenceau, the present Premier, is in power. In a speech last week he proclaimed the Government's intention not to admit the right of its servants to strike, and has begun preparations to meet a possible general strike. For instance, a regiment of trained telegraph operators was distributed among the wireless stations established on the southern and eastern frontiers to supplement the warships on the coast and insure communication with the Eiffel Tower, nearly a thousand feet high, at Paris. The various Chambers of Commerce throughout the Republic were sounded regarding the co-operation with the postal service, and automobile dealers were asked to give the number of machines which they could furnish to the Government. Then, suddenly, right and left, the suspension of the chief agitators began. No less than seventy-eight were suspended in three days. An appeal has been issued to the employees of the Republic, pointing out the privileges which they enjoy in the security of employment, the guarantee of promotion and of pensions. Despite this, a general strike is imminent. If the United States were to become a Socialist State, with Mr. Debs as its President, what would be his attitude towards a group of striking employees in any department?

A ROMAN STORY BY MARION CRAWFORD

Coming so soon after Mr. Crawford's death, the publication of his story of Rome, "The White Sister" (Macmillan) is an event of unusual interest. Years ago Mr. Crawford wrote a story about a nun which was subjected to some criticism by his Roman Catholic readers. "The White Sister" has as its central figure a charming young Roman girl, who is supposed to be the daughter of an old family, unreconciled to the modern order of things. She loves passionately a young officer, who goes to Africa and is reported to have been killed. She enters a con-

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vent. He returns, and a situation arises which presents difficulties so unusual that only a Roman Catholic like Mr. Crawford could have ventured to deal with them. He treates the situation with human frankness, delicacy, and in a spirit of reverence. As a story in point of construction and character-drawing, "The White Sister" is distinctly the best novel which has come from Mr. Crawford's hand for a number of years past. His intimate knowledge of Roman society, his affection for the Italians, and his long familiarity with many types of the people of the Peninsula, made him specially successful when he dealt with Roman themes, and for these reasons the "Saracinesca" series is likely to endure as long as any of the stories that came from his hand. Ippolito Saracinesca, a wise, middle-aged ecclesiastic of the most cultivated and charming type, appears in "The White Sister," and reminds the reader of the three generations in whose change of manners and ideals Mr. Crawford has reported the striking transformation of Rome during the last half-century. Another novel by Mr. Crawford will appear in the autumn, completing the long series of stories of many races and places with which this accomplished story-teller held the attention of almost a generation of readers.

MODERN BIBLICAL CRITICISM

Both the weakness and the value of modern Biblical criticism are illustrated by four recent books on the New Testament: "The Teaching of Jesus about the Future," by Professor Henry Burton Sharman, of Chicago University (University Press); "The Pauline Epistles," by Robert Scott, D. D., of Bombay; "Epochs in the Life of Paul," by Professor A. T. Robertson, of the Southern Baptist Theological Seminary; and "The Gospel and the Church," by Alfred Loisy, new edition (the last three, Scribners). In our judgment, the analytical method has been pursued by some scholars, in the study of both the Old Testament and the New Testament, beyond profit if not beyond reason. We believe, with Dr. Robert Scott, that "scholars to-day, like schoolmen of old, can spin cobwebs which clear air and common sense are sufficient to disperse." That the histories of both the Old and the New Testaments are composed in whole or in part from pre-existing materials is certain. That we can always tell exactly what the pre-existing materials were is very far from certain. That either the value or the authority of the writings depends upon doing so we do not believe. Of these volumes, the first employs a hypothetical analysis of the three Synoptic Gospels into the documents of which they are supposed to be composed, in an endeavor to trace the teachings in the Gospels concerning the Second Coming and the Future Life to their respective sources. To the Biblical scholar this will be interesting and may be valuable; and it would be so to the preacher and perhaps to the layman if the authority of Jesus were that of a maker of statutes. It would then be important to ascertain his very words. But if this were the case, his very words would have been preserved. In fact, the lay reader has but a translation (English) of a translation (Greek) of original unwritten speeches in Aramaic. It is confessedly impossible to get the original; and it is not necessary to do so in order to get what is important, namely, the essential principles and spirit of the teachings. The second volume applies a similar analytical method to the Epistles of Paul. The inexpert reader must leave the experts to determine the authorship of the Epistles which tradition attributes to the Apostle to the Gentiles. But the religious importance of the Epistles depends not on the theory that they represent the mind of Paul, but on the unquestionable fact that they represent one interpretation of Christianity, and a very important one, in the Apostolic Age. We do not agree with Dr. Scott's conclusions respecting the authorship of certain of these Epistles, but they are entitled to candid consideration, and some of his arguments against the Pauline authorship of Thessalonians are weighty. But when he comes to dividing up a single Epistle, as Romans, or a single chapter or theme in one Epistle, as 1 Corinthians, chapter 15, among different writers, it requires much stronger reasons than he has assigned to counterbalance the presumption which he frankly

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acknowledges against his analyses: "An essay or epistle of high purpose and art should not be lightly thought of as a compilation." Histories are presumptively composed from pre-existing material; but in the case of a great speech or a great letter the presumption is all the other way. The third volume, that of Professor Robertson, uses the previous analytical work of scholars as an interpretation of the life and letters of Paul. Without the literary genius of Sabatier or the imagination of Matheson, the book will be of practical value to any one using the Epistles of Paul for religious instruction. The fourth volume represents a view of the Gospel in its relation to the Church taken by the Modernists. It is in some sense an answer to Harnack's "What is Christianity?" At least, it approaches the subject from a different point of view: Harnack, as a Protestant, from that of the individual; Loisy, as a Roman Catholic, from that of the Institutionalist. The one tends to place the kingdom of God wholly in the "secret places of the heart;" the other tends to identify it with the Church. In our judgment, truth lies in a combination of the two—in a new social order, the secret of which is a transformation of the motive powers and aims of the individuals who constitute that society.

LONGFELLOW IN WASHINGTON

Washington has many statues and other memorials of public men and soldiers, but Longfellow is the first American man of letters to receive this commemoration in the National Capitol. Mr. Couper's impressive statue was unveiled on Friday, May 7, in the presence of a large and distinguished audience, including many members of the Senate and the House, the British Ambassador, and diplomatic representatives of other countries. The day was brilliantly clear at the beginning of the exercises, but at the moment when the flag which enfolded the figure was loosened by one of the poet's granddaughters a deluge of rain wetted the audience, but was not allowed to interrupt the programme. The triangular park at the corner of Connecticut Avenue and M Street was very charmingly dressed and crowded with people when Chief Justice Fuller rose to introduce Bishop Mackay-Smith, Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Association which has secured the funds and placed the statue in position, who gave a brief account of the movement and emphasized the warm response of the country to the appeal of the Committee. General Greely spoke briefly and effectively of "Longfellow the Man;" Mr. Bliss Perry, editor of the Atlantic Monthly and one of the successors of Longfellow in the professorship of English Literature at Harvard University, made a charming address on "Longfellow the Poet," which The Outlook will give its readers in the near future; and Mr. Mabie spoke on "Longfellow the Poet." Mr. Brainard Warner then presented the statue as the image of a poet loved by the whole world; and in the absence of the President, who was housed by an inflamed eye, Attorney-General Wickersham accepted the statue as the property of the Nation. When the flag was drawn aside, a striking image of Longfellow in bronze, seated with a book in his hands, was revealed, and Mr. Couper's success in likeness, figure, and attitude was recognized at a glance. It is a matter of great satisfaction that American literature has at last found recognition in a noble monumental form at the National Capital.

RELIGIOUS LIBERALS

The National Federation of Religious Liberals is a fruit of the International Congress at Boston in 1907. Its four days' session at Philadelphia in April drew members and speakers from over a dozen denominations, Christian and Jewish, the management being Unitarian. Its emphasis was laid upon the unity of the religious spirit in all good and devout men of whatever creed, and the practicality of their common aim to promote the reign of righteousness and brotherhood in personal life and social relations. Its liberalism was defined in positive more than in negative terms, as the freedom of faith in the essential truths of religion for solidarity of religious effort for the kingdom of God. Large prominence was accordingly given to the relations of religion to modern life, good citizenship, social questions, and

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needed reforms. Such subjects were discussed by men of National reputation in the churches, the universities, and the State—the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, and the Jew—uniting in "the fellowship of the spirit." The proceedings, when published, will be a profitable study, and may correct some misconceptions. From first to last, the general lesson of the Congress was that religion, pure and simple, unites where theology divides. The attendance was remarkably large. The Federation, thus launched, is expected to meet annually.

THE MAN AND THE MACHINE

While New York was creating last month a commission to study the questions of the unemployed and of responsibility for the life and limb of the employee, Illinois received the report of the Industrial Commission which it had created at the last session of its Legislature. This report is a document of great significance, for it indicates what great progress can be made when employers and employees work together for social welfare. Accompanying the report was a bill unanimously indorsed by the Commission, submitted by it to the Governor, and transmitted by him to the Legislature. This bill provides "for the health, safety, and comfort of employees in factories, mercantile establishments, mills, and workshops" in Illinois. It is very comprehensive in its provisions. It provides for the guarding of machinery, for proper care in making repairs; it makes restrictions with regard to the presence of food in shops and factories; it makes requirements with regard to seats, temperature, ventilation, effluvia, refuse, fire escapes, exits, stairways, lights, floor space, passageways, wash-rooms, and the like; it requires the reporting of accidents; it provides for inspection; it adjusts between employer and employee responsibility for accidents; and by specific provisions it dovetails into local ordinances on the one side and Federal law on the other. Certain obvious defects appear in the bill as it was transmitted to the Legislature; and some of its terms are so broad and general that, if the bill is passed, they will call for the exercise of great discretion and for accurate knowledge of labor conditions by the judges who will be called upon to interpret the law. It will unquestionably be frequently amended, not merely because it is incomplete at present, but because industrial conditions change with such rapidity that a measure of this kind must be frequently altered to keep pace. The Commission did its preliminary work so carefully that apparently effective opposition was disarmed before the Commission made its report. At least, no opposition developed, we understand, at one hearing of a legislative committee that had the bill in charge. The bill has passed the upper branch of the Legislature. Such a law as this must be regarded as a general code which will be supplemented and developed. As a legislative precedent it will be of great importance. The Commission found that employers and employees were ready to give and take; and that each side wanted only the opportunity, and in no respect lacked the disposition, to ascertain and understand the other's point of view. In studying the actual working conditions in the State, it learned that many safeguards could be adopted at very slight expense. "The countersinking of set screws," writes the Commission, for instance, "and the guarding of gear wheels, involving only trifling expenditure on the part of the manufacturer, would in themselves protect the lives and limbs of a great many operatives." The Commission did not draw up the bill with the intention of setting standards greatly in advance of the practices followed by the more progressive manufacturers, but with the purpose of making such practices natural and common. Unfortunate industrial conditions it ascribed mainly to thoughtlessness. The Commission's bill is, therefore, valuable, not only as a club for the inhumane, but also as a convenient and serviceable instrument for the larger number of well-disposed manufacturers. The attitude of the Commission and the result of its findings illustrate the fact that in a democracy law is not so much a compulsion of the governed by the governing power as it is the expressed determination and frequently the already adopted practice of most of the people.

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TOLSTOY

I

One of the comic features of the political campaign last fall was the letter which Count Tolstoy wrote on behalf of Mr. Bryan. In this letter Count Tolstoy advocated the election of Mr. Bryan on the ground that he was the representative of the party of peace, of anti-militarism. From the point of view of American politics, the incident possessed no importance beyond furnishing material for the humorous columns of the newspapers. But it had a certain real interest as indicating Count Tolstoy's worth as a moral guide. He advocated Mr. Bryan on the theory that Mr. Bryan represented peace and anti-militarism. Now there was but one point in the platform of either political party in 1908 which contained any element of menace to the peace of the world. This was the plank in the Bryanite platform which demanded the immediate exclusion by law of all Asiatic laborers, and therefore of the Japanese. Coupled with it was the utterly meaningless plank about the Navy, which was, however, intended to convey the impression that we ought to have a navy only for the defense of our coasts—that is, a merely "defensive" navy, or, in other words, a quite worthless navy. Now I have shown in a preceding editorial that at this present time there is neither justification nor excuse for such a law—and this wholly without regard to what the future may show. The exclusion plank in Mr. Bryan's platform represented merely an idle threat, a wanton insult, and it was coupled with what was intended to be a declaration that the policy of upbuilding the Navy, which has been so successfully carried on during the past dozen years, would be abandoned. Any man of common sense, therefore, ought to perceive the self-evident fact that the only menace to peace which was contained in any possible action by the American Republic was that contained in the election of Mr. Bryan and the attempt to put into effect his platform. That Count Tolstoy did not see this affords a curious illustration of his complete inability to face facts; of his readiness to turn aside from the truth in the pursuit of any phantom, however foolish; and of the utter fatuity of those who treat him as a philosopher, whose philosophy should be, or could be, translated into action.

Count Tolstoy is a man of genius, a great novelist. "War and Peace," "Anna Karénina," "The Cossacks," "Sebastopol," are great books. As a novelist he has added materially to the sum of production of his generation. As a professional philosopher and moralist I doubt if his influence has really been very extensive among men of action; of course it has a certain weight among men who live only in the closet, in the library; and among the high-minded men of this type, who, because of their sheltered lives, naturally reject what is immoral, and do not have to deal with what is fantastic, in Tolstoy's teachings, it is probable that the really lofty side of these teachings gives them a certain sense of spiritual exaltation. But I have no question that whatever little influence Tolstoy has exerted among men of action has told, on the whole, for evil. I do not think his influence over men of action has been great, for I think he has swayed or dominated only the feeble folk and the fantastic folk. No man who possesses both robust common sense and high ideals, and who strives to apply both in actual living, is affected by Tolstoy's teachings, save as he is affected by the teachings of hundreds of other men in whose writings there are occasional truths mixed with masses of what is commonplace or erroneous. Strong men may gain something from Tolstoy's moral teachings, but only on condition that they are strong enough and sane enough to be repelled by those parts of his teachings which are foolish or immoral. Weak persons are hurt by the teachings. Still, I think that the mere fact that these weak persons are influenced sufficiently to be marred means that there was not in them a very great quantity of potential usefulness to mar. In the United States we suffer from grave moral dangers; but they are for the most part dangers which Tolstoy would neither perceive nor know how to combat. Moreover, the real and dreadful evils which do in fact share in his denunciation of and attack upon both good and evil are usually not evils which are of much moment among us. On the other

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hand, we are not liable to certain kinds of wickedness which there is real danger of his writings inculcating; for it is a lamentable fact that, as is so often the case with a certain type of mystical zealot, there is in him a dark streak which tells of moral perversion. That side of his teachings which is partially manifested in the revolting "Kreutzer Sonata" can do exceedingly little damage in America, for it would appeal only to decadents; exactly as it could have come only from a man who, however high he may stand in certain respects, has in him certain dreadful qualities of the moral pervert.

The usual effect of prolonged and excessive indulgence in Tolstoyism on American disciples is comic rather than serious. One of these disciples, for instance, not long ago wrote a book on American municipal problems, which ascribed our ethical and social shortcomings in municipal matters in part to the sin of "militarism." Now the mind of this particular writer in making such a statement was influenced not in the least by what had actually occurred or was occurring in our cities, but by one of Tolstoy's theories which has no possible bearing upon American life. Militarism is a real factor for good or for evil in most European countries. In America it has not the smallest effect one way or the other; it is a negligible quantity. There are undoubtedly states of society where militarism is a grave evil, and there are plenty of circumstances in which the prime duty of man may be to strive against it. But it is not righteous war, not even war itself, which is the absolute evil, the evil which is evil always and under all circumstances. Militarism which takes the form of a police force, municipal or national, may be the prime factor for upholding peace and righteousness. Militarism is to be condemned or not purely according to the conditions. So eating horse meat is in itself a mere matter of taste; but the early Christian missionaries in Scandinavia found that serious evil sprang from the custom of eating horse meat in honor of Odin. It is literally true that our very grave municipal problems in New York or Chicago have no more to do with militarism than with eating the meat of horses that have been sacrificed to pagan deities; and a crusade against one habit, as an element in municipal reform, is just about as rational as would be a crusade against the other. Oliver Wendell Holmes said that it had taken a century to remove the lark from American literature; because the poets insisted upon writing, not about the birds they saw, but about the birds they had read of in the writings of other poets. Militarism as an evil in our social life is as purely a figment of the imagination as the skylark in our literature. Moreover, the fact that in spite of this total absence of militarism there is so much that is evil in our life, so much need for reform, ought to show persons who think that the destruction of militarism would bring about the millennium how completely they lack the sense of perspective.

Another disciple used to write poetry in defense of the Mahdi, apparently under the vague impression that this also was a protest against militarism and therefore in line with Tolstoy's teachings—as very possibly it was. Now, Mahdism was as hideous an exhibition of bloodthirsty cruelty, governmental tyranny, corruption and inefficiency, and homicidal religious fanaticism as the world has ever seen. Its immediate result was to destroy over half the population in the area where it held sway, and to bring the most dreadful degradation and suffering to the remainder. It represented in the aggregate more wickedness, more wrong-doing, more human suffering, than all the wickedness, wrong-doing, and human suffering in all the Christian communities put together during the same period. It was characteristic of the fantastic perversion of morality which naturally results from the serious acceptance of Tolstoy as a moral teacher that one manifestation of this acceptance should have been a defense of Mahdism. Of course when the Anglo-Egyptian army overthrew Mahdism it conferred a boon upon all mankind, and most of all upon the wretched inhabitants of the Sudan.

So much for Tolstoyism in America, the only place where I have studied it in action, and where its effect, although insignificant for good, has been not much more significant for evil, being absurd rather than serious. As to the effect in

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Russia itself, I am not competent to speak. But the history of the Duma proved in the most emphatic way that the greatest danger to liberalism in Russia sprang from the fact that the liberals were saturated with just such folly as that taught by Tolstoy. The flat contradiction between his theory and practice in such matters as his preaching concerning the relations of the sexes, and also concerning private property—for of course it is an unlovely thing to profit by the private property of one's wife and children, while affecting to cast it aside—is explicable only by one of two very sad hypotheses, neither of which it is necessary here to discuss. The important point is that his preaching is compounded of some very beautiful and lofty sentiments, with much that is utterly fantastic, and with some things that are grossly immoral. The Duma fell far short of what its friends in other lands hoped for, just because it showed these very same traits, and because it failed to develop the power for practical common-sense work. There were plenty of members who could utter the loftiest moral sentiments, sentiments quite as lofty as those once uttered by Robespierre; but there was an insufficiency of members able and willing to go to work in practical fashion, able and willing to try to make society measurably better by cutting out the abuses that could be cut out, and by starting things on the right road, instead of insisting upon doing nothing unless they could immediately introduce the millennium and reform all the abuses of society out of hand with a jump. What was needed was a body of men like those who made our Constitution; men accustomed to work with their fellows, accustomed to compromise; men who clung to high ideals, but who were imbued with the philosophy which Abraham Lincoln afterwards so strikingly exemplified, and were content to take the best possible where the best absolute could not be secured. This was the spirit of Washington and his associates in one great crisis of our National life, of Lincoln and his associates in the other great crisis. It is the only spirit from which it will ever be possible to secure good results in a free country; and it is the direct negation of Tolstoyism.

To minimize the chance of anything but willful misunderstanding, let me repeat that Tolstoy is a great writer, a great novelist; that the unconscious influence of his novels is probably, on the whole, good, even disregarding their standing as works of art; that even as a professional moralist and philosophical adviser of mankind in religious matters he has some excellent theories and on some points develops a noble and elevating teaching; but that taken as a whole, and if generally diffused, his moral and philosophical teachings, so far as they had any influence at all, would have an influence for bad; partly because on certain points they teach downright immorality, but much more because they tend to be both foolish and fantastic, and if logically applied would mean the extinction of humanity in a generation.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

II

It is not my purpose either to confirm or to criticise Mr. Roosevelt's estimate of Tolstoy, nor to offer what can be regarded as an adequate interpretation of him and his work, but only to accompany the impression produced by him on a practical man of affairs, with an impression produced by him on a religious teacher.

For it is as a religious teacher that I first became acquainted with Tolstoy through the essay "My Religion." In its English translation it appeared first, I believe, in 1885. Up to that time I had known nothing of the author. That is perhaps not strange, since the preface to that volume states that his name "does not appear in that heterogeneous record of celebrities known as 'The Men of the Time,' nor is it to be found in M. Vapereau's comprehensive 'Dictionnaire des Contemporains.'" "My Religion" produced on me a profound impression. It is difficult, looking back over a period of a quarter of a century, to distinguish among the blurred impressions of the past what were the most potent and formative influences of any particular period. It must suffice to say that the Puritanism of my childhood regarded every day as a preparation for the next day, every year as a preparation for the next year, and this life as a preparation for an unknown life to come. Thus life was regarded as

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a continuous probation. "My Religion" was among the more important of various contributing influences which have led me to change, if not my point of view, at least my emphasis; to realize that Jesus Christ had much more to say about our duties to our fellows here than about our preparation for an unknown life hereafter; and that his life-object was to inspire men to build up a kingdom of God on the earth, not to teach them how to escape from this earth into a foreign kingdom in heaven. Interest was added to this book by the character of the unknown author and the nature of his approach. For a quarter of a century I had been studying the Gospels in the original, with such aids as I could command. They had been the central theme of my studies. I was familiar with the Roman Catholic, the High Church Anglican, the old Puritan, the modern Puritan, and the Rationalistic point of view. But here was a man who seemed to have, as it were, stumbled on the Gospels; to have taken them up with no previous point of view; to have discovered them as a new contribution to the meaning of life, and discovered in them a new dominating purpose.

By its *naïveté* and the freshness of its view the book fascinated me. It is my custom in serious reading to make a sort of index, in the rear of the book, of the passages that appear to me specially significant. On looking over my copy of "My Religion" I find the first item indexed to be the author's summary of the five commandments in the Sermon on the Mount. I copy the paragraph here, with the omission of a few unessential sentences:

> The first commandment tells us to be at peace with every one and to consider no one as foolish or unworthy. . . . Everything is comprised in this commandment; but Jesus knew the worldly temptations that prevent peace among men. The first temptation perilous to peace is that of the sexual relation. We are not to consider the body as an instrument of lust; each man is to have one wife, and each woman one husband, and one is never to forsake the other under any pretext. The second temptation is that of the oath, which draws men into sin; this is wrong, and we are not to be bound by any such promise. The third temptation is that of vengeance, which we call human justice; this we are not to resort to under any pretext; we are to endure offenses and never to return evil for evil. The fourth temptation is that arising from differences in nationalities, from hostilities between peoples and states; but we are to remember that all men are brothers, and children of the same Father, and thus take care that difference in nationality leads not to the destruction of peace.

There is much in this summary of Christ's commandments which is appealing and forceful; but there are also curious incongruities. For example: it does not follow, because we are to live at peace with all men, that we are not to consider as foolish or unworthy those who are foolish or unworthy; nor, because we are not to take oaths, even supposing Christ meant to forbid oaths in judicial proceedings, that we are not bound by the promise made under oath; nor, because we are not to indulge in avenging our own wrongs, that we may not seek justice for ourselves and secure it for others through impartial tribunals. This illogicalness of mind seemed to me to pervade the whole book, and to vitiate its conclusions, despite much that was noble in its ideals and much that was inspiring in its humane purpose.

To this was added another defect equally fatal to it as a book of interpretation. Its method seemed to me that of a black-letter lawyer interpreting criminal statutes, and appeared the more extraordinary when I learned that Tolstoy was not a lawyer but a writer of romances. In my grandfather's illustrated family Bible was a picture which greatly pleased my boyhood fancy by its unconscious humor. The artist illustrated Christ's counsel to the Pharisees to take the beam out of their own eyes before they attempted to take the mote out of their neighbors' eyes, by a picture of two men from the eye of one of whom a beam was protruding, while he was examining for a mote the eye of a companion. Tolstoy's canons of interpretation recalled this picture. Literalism in the interpretation of the Bible was nothing new; but its employment by a great writer of literature was an interesting curiosity. Careless of the fact that Jesus taught in Aramaic, not in Greek, and that therefore we do not have his exact words, this interpreter submitted the Greek words to careful analysis and

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sought to determine the meaning of Christ's laws by an appeal to the dictionary. He did not ask how the disciples would have understood their Master, nor how in fact they did understand him, nor what interpretation his conduct and his other teaching put upon them. Thus Tolstoy's method of interpretation is the direct opposite of Matthew Arnold's in "Religion and Dogma." It might not unjustly be characterized as "the new scholasticism."

The interest in Tolstoy awakened by reading "My Religion," and subsequently his volume entitled "What is to be Done," which seemed to me to present vivid pictures of social ills, but neither a true diagnosis nor a true remedy, sent me to his novels, especially "Anna Karénina" and "War and Peace." I shall not attempt a critique of either novel, nor of Tolstoy as a novelist, further than to say that these novels seemed and still seem to me to violate in a very striking manner the rule he subsequently laid down in "My Religion"—we are "to consider none as foolish or unworthy." His characters, pre-eminently his women, are nearly all foolish or unworthy, or both. He is said to be a great "realist." I am not sure that I understand exactly what realism means; I am not even sure that those who use the phrase most freely could define it with accuracy. Nor do I know anything of Russian society except what I have learned from literature—travels, history, and novels. But Tolstoy's novels read as though they were photographic pictures taken from life.[1]

But the photographer is also an artist: his art is shown, not by his invention, but by his selection. That Tolstoy describes correctly those aspects of Russian life which he selects for his description is probably true. That he has omitted in his selection other and nobler aspects is morally certain. To me it is incredible that all Russian society should be as decadent as are those phases which he has chosen to describe. Says Prince Andrei in "War and Peace:" "My father is right. Egotism, ostentation, stupidity, meanness in every respect—such are women when they show themselves in their real light. You see them in society and think that they amount to something, but they are naught, naught, naught." The novelist is not to be held responsible for the sentiment he puts in the mouths of some of his characters. And not all Tolstoy's women correspond to this description. But I do not recall in my reading any woman who is worthy of our moral reverence or even of our intellectual respect. Surely Russia is not wholly wanting in such. It is not merely that he has given us no ideals of womanhood, no Cordelia or Imogen. Ideals are not to be demanded of a realist. But he has given us no Mrs. Pendennis, or Esther Summerson, or Romola; and no womanly loyalty like that of Jeanie Deans or Lady Castlewood. I do not recall upon his stage, though I have not read all his novels, any woman whose intellect I can admire, as I do that of Becky Sharp, or whose charm attracts in spite of her follies, as does the charm of Effie Deans and Beatrice Esmond. Nor do I remember that he ever portrays a wifely love and a husband's loyalty. That peculiar form of love which binds husband and wife together by an imperishable bond which even death cannot destroy, he knows nothing of. To me it seems the holiest love, save only that of a mother for her child. As Tolstoy sees it, at least in the form which he elects to describe, it is a sensuous passion, which will brook no restraint and has no endurance. I do not often find occasion to quote Robert G. Ingersoll. But Mr. Ingersoll has, I think, put his finger on the fatal defect of Tolstoy as a novelist in the single sentence: "Tolstoy seems to be a stranger to the heart of woman."

There were four eras in the life of Tolstoy. In the first he attempted, on his own estate, some of those social and industrial reforms of which he has been since an advocate, and failed because it was impossible for him to get the co-operation of those by whom alone the reforms could be carried out. He then entered the army and Russian society, and gave himself up to a life of social indulgence coupled with extravagance and some unrestrained dissipation. He next entered on his literary

[1] My reading of Tolstoy's novels is confirmed, I find, by Matthew Arnold: "We are not to take 'Anna Karénina' as a work of art; we are to take it as a piece of life. A piece of life it is. The author has not invented and combined it; he has seen it; it has all happened before his inward eye, and it was in this wise that it happened."

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career, describing the society in which he had lived in novels tinged if not pervaded by that cynical spirit which one would naturally expect from his previous experience. Finally, he became a social and religious reformer, devoting himself to writing treatises on social religion—that is, a religion which is social and a sociology which is religious. In this last epoch he has, it is said, repudiated the novels which he had written in the previous epoch. These facts must be borne in mind in forming a just estimate of the man. My object in this article is not to supply a just estimate of the man, but to record autobiographically the impression which the author has produced by his writings on one not wholly unsympathetic reader. In estimating an author and the influence he has produced on his age, the totality of his writings must be taken into account. That Tolstoy has produced by his writings inconsistent impressions is due to the fact that he has had and has given expression to inconsistent experiences. That, notwithstanding these inconsistencies, he has been and is a powerful force in the life of his age cannot be questioned. But that he is as powerful a force as some of his admirers think is very doubtful. It is said that he is so powerful that the Russian Government dare not proceed against him.

Is this the reason why the bureaucracy has left him undisturbed? Or is it because he is to them innocuous? I rather think his weakness is the secret of his immunity. A man who in his essays declares that we must not regard any one as foolish or unworthy, and in his novels describes all men and women as one or the other or both, cannot inspire any effective indignation against folly or crime. A man who condemns as brutal the force employed by a despotic government to repress the life of the people, but condemns as equally brutal all endeavor by the people forcibly to resist it, will never incite them to revolt. Neither the cynicism of novels which treat all men with contempt, nor the idealism of a philosophy which forbids effective indignation against any one, however oppressive, is a peril to despotism. And the bureaucracy is shrewd enough to recognize the fact.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

THE UNPLEASANT DUTY OF PAYING TAXES

We are all inclined to regard taxation as we do medicine in a case of illness—inevitable, but to be struggled against as long as possible, and finally to be taken with a wry face. It is easier, too, to administer it to some other patient than to swallow it ourselves. Just now, for example, Americans can discuss the English Budget and its enormous income tax with light hearts, but the tariff debate at Washington and the President's suggestion of a progressive inheritance tax are gloomy subjects indeed. We hear nowadays a great deal about "tariff reform;" the tariff question is really included in a much larger question, the question of Tax Reform. This larger question will undoubtedly enter more and more into American political discussions and political campaigns. In the earlier days of the Republic we were all too busy amassing "boundless wealth" to pay very much attention to the tax collector; when he called, we grumblingly paid him what he asked, got rid of him as soon as we could, like a book agent or a solicitor for foreign missions, and turned again to our work of railway-building or mining or wheat-reaping. These were the days of money-making; now are coming the days of money-saving, and taxation is felt much more keenly by him whose comfort in life depends upon how economically he expends his accumulated store of wealth than by him who has the opportunity and the faculty of rapidly accumulating new wealth.

Four recent books may be commended to the reader who wishes to inform himself upon current and future aspects of taxation in the United States. "Principles of Politics," by Professor J. W. Jenks, of Cornell University (The Columbia University Press), is not a discussion of taxation, and the taxing power is referred to only incidentally by Dr. Jenks as one of the functions of government. But this lucid and interesting volume, prepared originally for college students, but both readable and instructive to the man of fifty, gives a clear idea of the need of taxation and takes away some of its bitter taste. The citizen can-

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not have even the suffrage without paying for the expense of exercising it, and those who would abolish the Dreadnoughts of modern navies because of the enormous expense of their construction, maintenance, and rapid depreciation, must at any rate pay to maintain an international court at The Hague. In Mr. David MacGregor Means's "Methods of Taxation" (Dodd, Mead & Co.) we have an admirably written treatise on the philosophy and, it may be added, the psychology of tax-paying and tax-collecting. No better general review of the different kinds and methods of taxation applied by civilized governments since the days of Adam Smith has come to the notice of The Outlook. But Mr. Means distinctly takes the medicinal view of taxation; he thinks it is all, as at present compounded, extremely unpalatable; but he performs a real service in bringing before the reader the fact that the country is suffering from some fiscal ills that require new tax prescriptions.

Unlike Mr. Means, Mr. C. B. Fillebrown, President of the Massachusetts Single Tax League, has a specific prescription to offer. In his "A B C of Taxation" (Doubleday, Page & Co.) he urges the adoption of the "single tax" on land of which Henry George was the great apostle. His book is brief, easy to understand, and full of interesting illustrations of the working of taxation in the city of Boston. He states his theory definitely, and maintains it with able arguments, reinforced by evidence in the form of concrete exhibits. In this respect his volume is much more like that of Professor Jenks than that of Mr. Means. Mr. Fillebrown and Professor Jenks "get somewhere." Mr. Means is too tired to struggle much; all he is able to do is to protest.

Perhaps, on the whole, the last volume of the four is the first one that ought to be taken up by the reader who proposes to look a little into the question of taxation. It is "The Fate of Iciodorum, being The Story of a City Made Rich by Taxation," by David Starr Jordan (Henry Holt & Co.), a delightful and amusing satire upon the fundamental theory of protectionists that a restrictive tariff benefits all the consumers of a country imposing it. Even an ultra-protectionist may enjoy Dr. Jordan's story of Issoire and Clermont, and will undoubtedly approve the tax levied for the protection of the Widow Besoin's Dominick hens.

Roughly speaking, modern systems of taxation may be classified as follows:

I. Get the money wherever and however you can, generally speaking where it will produce the least protest; for example, from licensing liquor saloons, hacks, automobiles, etc., etc. The tariff tax is the most striking illustration of this method, for it is a method rather than a principle of taxation; we pay our individual shares of the tariff tax to the dressmaker, the tailor, the shoemaker, and the grocer, and do not know we are paying a tax at all. The result is that we grumble at the dressmaker, the tailor, the shoemaker, and the grocer, and not at the Government. This to-day is the most popular method in this country of taking disagreeable taxation medicine and disguising the taste.

II. In raising taxes consider two questions: Who get the most from the Government and who are the best able to contribute to the Government? Thus Mr. Rockefeller and Mr. Astor get a great deal more police protection than most men, and are better able to pay taxes; charge them accordingly. The inheritance tax and the personal property tax are levied on this principle.

III. Follow the theory of Henry George. Land and its contents are no more proper subjects of personal ownership than the air, the sunlight, or the ocean; nor are the powers of Nature, such as water power, steam, and electricity. If the people of the United States owned all the land and controlled all the powers of Nature, paying a fair compensation to inventors for discovering methods of using them, and all the franchises which have been given to corporations, which, by means of them, now possess monopolies, the governmental income from rentals would pay all the expenses of government and leave a margin of profit. This is, in effect, the Single Tax. On this theory is based the Franchise Tax.

All modern methods of taxation consist of various combinations of the three foregoing general plans. The simplest and

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clearest in theory, and in the present condition of society the most difficult of practical application, is the taxation of land values and the values of natural resources. A tax upon the land and natural resources would do away with at least four great political and social evils connected with the collection of taxes, namely, the log-rolling and lobbying of "special interests" at Washington; the sending of taxable securities out of the State by New York bankers and other owners liable to taxation on assessment days; the inquisitorial dangers which are not unreasonably feared in an income tax; and the blackmailing of great corporations by corrupt lawmakers..

CLEANING THE THEATER

The Outlook has always regarded the unmeasured denunciation of the play and the theater by religious people as short-sighted and disastrous. At no point, perhaps, have the men and women who care for religion blundered more obviously than in dealing with the drama and the player. To put an art under a ban and to exclude a profession from the ranks of respectability is to make it easy for the art to sink to a low level and to tempt a whole profession to become pariahs; this was true to a large extent of Shakespeare's contemporaries who wrote dramas; and the misery and moral tragedy which overtook many dramatists was largely due to the fact that, so far as society could accomplish that result, it locked its doors against them and branded them as outcasts.

The Outlook has always insisted that the dramatic instinct is a wholesome impulse; that the play is as legitimate a form of literature as the essay or the novel; and that the player has just as much claim to respect and consideration, so far as his profession is concerned, as the lawyer, the doctor, or the mechanic. It is true, the stage has often sunk to very low depths, and actors have often been dissolute; but in every profession there are bad men, and every trade is made infamous by dishonesty, greed, and incompetency. To reform a class one must begin by respecting it; to save a man or a woman the first step must be by the road of sympathy. If the theater is to be lifted, and it must be lifted, religious people must learn the primary lesson of respect for a capacity which God put into men when he put reason, imagination, and passion into them, and for a profession which is a permanent profession because it expresses a great human instinct. The stage sorely needs cleansing; but it must be cleansed by discriminating criticism, not by wholesale condemnation. Precisely the same attitude must be taken to the play as to every other form of art; and the actor must be dealt with in precisely the same spirit as the painter, the sculptor, or the musician. Because some artists are dissolute, society does not ban the entire group; because some composers have violated most of the moral laws, society does not shut its doors in the face of all composers. When good people begin to discriminate between decent and indecent plays, and between actors who respect themselves and actors who throw the best things of life away, the theater will become again, what it has been at times, a great resource and a great teacher.

The Outlook restates its attitude because it wishes to record its protest as strongly and frankly as possible against the prostitution of the drama in many of the theaters in New York. Mr. Samuel Hopkins Adams does not overstate the case in the May issue of The American Magazine when he says: "Just now the American stage is suffering from a contagious plague of evil plays and exhibitions. That this epidemic be stopped, it is necessary for good people to know about it and to be stirred to effective measures of quarantine and suppression." It is perfectly true that a large responsibility rests on the managers of the theaters which ought to be branded as indecent. These gentlemen are trying to hide behind what they call the public demand, or they are endeavoring to meet criticism of the performances for which they are responsible by declaring that they are presenting works of art. So far as the art side of this disreputable business is concerned, it may be dismissed in a word; there is not one of these indecent plays which has, by remotest intimation or suggestion, any relation to art. An acute critic who saw

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one of these plays recently said that he came away relieved; it was so badly acted that it could not live. But, unfortunately, a salacious play has a drawing power for a certain class of people which even poor acting does not appreciably diminish. Real art never panders to the baser appetites. Art is free and unconventional to the point which arouses the anxiety of the prudish, but art never sinks to the level of prostitution. When that level is reached, art disappears from the stage. There is not an indecent play in New York which can for a moment shelter itself behind the plea that it is a work of art. These plays, as a whole, are crude and inartistic; they present no real picture of life; their attractive power lies either in suggestive plot, indecent attitude, or salacious dialogue. It has been evident that, during the past season, half a dozen plays on the New York stage were deliberately planned to secure popularity by violating the most sacred things of life, by dealing grossly with the most sacred relations, by indecent innuendo, or by practical nakedness of figure to appeal to the worst instincts of the spectators.

The plea that in thus prostituting the stage the manager is meeting the taste of his audience is as untrue as the plea that he is serving the interests of art. What the manager does in these cases is not to cater to his audience, but to pander to it. He deliberately selects the approach to the worst side of human nature; he intentionally trades on the perversion of the passions, and coins money out of vulgarity and corruption. This is the charge against him, and the time is coming when indecent plays must be blacklisted, not by a public censor, but by the common agreement of people who respect themselves, or care for the morals of the community.

For no one can measure the degrading influence of these gross and salacious plays. Upon boys and girls especially that influence is most disastrous. No half-grown boy could sit through any one of a half-dozen plays which have been running in New York City during the past season without experiencing an abnormal and premature forcing of the passionate side of his nature. These boys and girls are not responsible. They go to the plays because older people go; and one of the amazing facts in the situation is the attendance of decent, self-respecting women in theaters in which plays are presented which have no proper place outside a disorderly house. The state of mind of a well-bred, well-conditioned woman who will listen, in company with a man, to some of the talk in these plays, is one of those problems of psychology which are not yet solved. It is probable that it is not the appeal to passion which attracts such women. It is probably mental vacuity, lack of serious interests, and that curiosity which, more than any other thing, leads the American woman astray when she goes astray at all.

This criticism applies to only a small group of plays among the many that have been presented in New York theaters during the past season. A number of these plays have been of a high character, they have drawn large audiences, they have been extremely interesting. It is only fair to New York to remember that the patronage of the half-dozen bad plays has not been largely drawn from citizens of New York, but from the hosts of strangers from all parts of the country who crowd the great hotels and who support most of the vaudeville shows of the city.

Good men and women need a searching of the conscience on this matter. They have by their attendance given support to exhibitions which are deliberately devised to appeal to the worst in human nature; they have listened to conversations in which they would have been ashamed to take part; they have looked at things which belong to the under-world. The first step toward the abolition of this corruption on the stage is to discriminate against it by refusing to look at it. The protest of non-attendance would soon bring managers to their senses, and nothing would clean the stage so quickly and thoroughly as a recognition of decent plays, well written and well acted, and the entire neglect of vulgar, cheap, or corrupt plays. This is the first step toward putting a ban on a depraved stage and blacklisting a degrading play.

The New York Legislature has passed a bill, which has received the Governor's signature, making it a misdemeanor to advertise or present any obscene, immoral, or impure drama, play, exhibition,

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show, or entertainment which would tend to the corruption of youth or others. An accompanying bill which has also received the Governor's signature makes it a misdemeanor to post or display any indecent poster, bill, or picture, or permit such posters, bills, or pictures to be displayed, which would tend to demoralize the public. This legislation, if wisely administered, will aid in the direction and enforcement of public opinion, but it will not remove the responsibility for these plays and exhibitions from the men and woman who patronize them. Legislative measures of this kind only encumber the statute-book unless there is a vigorous moral impulse behind them.

THE SPECTATOR

He was a very straight and impressive little colored standard-bearer, and took his place as seriously and proudly on the corner of the platform, among the white visitors, as if he had been at the head of a battalion. Toward him and the flag looked scores of eyes as line after line, first of girls, then of boys, came marching in and stood at attention on the broad floor of the assembly-room. The marching tune played by the neat little colored maiden at the piano was a bit of monotonous, minor plantation music that yet set one's feet going; the faces of the marchers were of every type and proportion of negro blood, and the varieties of juvenile hair-dressing, from eelskins to long auburn curls, defied description; but the salutation of the flag, by the whole Whittier School at Hampton, was with one heart and voice. Right hands uplifted, faces turned to the flag, the inspiring words rang out: "I pledge allegiance to my flag and to the Republic for which it stands—one Nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all. My hand, my heart, my head, I give to my country."

The Spectator wanted to join in it, too, but, alas! he did not know the words of his own birthright, so to speak. Only one voice rose alongside him on the platform, besides those of the teachers and the little standard-bearer. It was that of a pretty girl, who explained afterwards: "I belong to a patriotic society where I have read it and taught it to new members so often that I can't help knowing it. It's like the words of the Star-Spangled Banner with most people—everybody knows *about* them, but nobody knows them." Certainly the most instructed Americans in the room appeared to be on the floor and not on the platform. And what charming voices they had, both in the responses of the exercises and in the singing! A signal from the quiet-voiced teacher brought out a boys' quartet. The standard-bearer stepped down, relinquishing his flag to another small, straight, serious boy from the head of the nearest line, and took part in this, raising in a wailing soprano the cadences of "Oh, what a mournin'," as correctly as any grown-up Jubilee Singer could do. The Spectator found himself wondering if the small and picturesque "Ezekiel" of whom Miss Pratt has written so convincingly might not be before him in the flesh.

Mr. Squeers has come into his own in Hampton education. His method of teaching the young idea how to shoot—"Spell horse—H-o-r-s-e—now go out and rub him down!"—is the foundation of their progressive teaching nowadays. The Hampton Institute, having taught its graduates teaching, puts them into this Whittier School to teach the material furnished by the neighborhood—or so the Spectator understood the process. Here the newest educational dodges are tried on the infant mind, and the infant mind seems to like it, and to respond with enthusiasm and accuracy. From room to room the visitor can saunter, and in each room finds afresh how his or her own early education was neglected. The "number work" with foot-rule and chalk robs multiplication of its vexation, and the "word-study" in which each child compiles a private dictionary in a small blank book makes the acquisition of new and difficult words a game of fresh interest. In the kindergarten "dramatizations" all the little colored boys were playing blacksmith, and all the little girls were driven up as horses to be shod, and the dawn of manual training was clearly indicated.

It is a distinctly valuable and modern educational idea to suit Commencement

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to the weather. Every one knows, by sad experience, that mid-June is not a time for assemblies and exercises. Memories of addresses where inspiration and perspiration have been inseparable yokefellows cling about the mind familiar with academic occasions. Hampton wisely chooses the time of its best weather, and holds its Commencement then and there. Tuition goes on afterwards, and the diplomas are not actually handed over until June; but the Commencement is in the spring, amid settings too exquisite to describe. The roses and the spring are alike in full beauty, and the greens of the lawns and the vernal woods are a dream of tender color, bounded by the sea and its white sails, and arched by a cloudless sky. Nothing the orators can say about "the Southland" is felt to be in the least flowery, because the reality is flowery beyond language. But the surprising thing is that the Commencement is not marked by efforts at oratory. Harvard is infinitely more sophomorical than Hampton. The party of which the Spectator was a member was a large one, and composed of men and women more or less familiar with all the American universities; yet all were impressed by the directness and the maturity of the addresses of the graduating class. When a young woman, quietly and simply, in a voice of gold, tells the audience how she ran away and hid, as a child in an Indian village, from the white men who came to take her to school, and then explains the position of a graduate of Hampton who returns to labor among her own people, and what ideas and ideals must be followed, admiration divides itself between the speech and the personality. When a young man, in plain, forceful English, sets forth the value of learning a trade, psychologically and sociologically, and its effect on both races in the Southern problem, the astonishing fact is driven home that wisdom, that most difficult elective in the curriculum, has been taught, and to an undergraduate.

"But how do you teach it?" asked the Spectator of one of the staff. "And don't they go out and forget it in the scramble for money and personal advantage?" "No," was the answer. "They come in selfish, almost every one of them. They want a chance in life—a personal chance. They want a trade to make money, or a diploma that will give them position among their race. But it is wonderful how they catch the Hampton spirit, little by little—and, once caught, it stays." Representatives of former classes brought greeting and encouragement to the graduating class. '02, '05, '07, sent men to tell their stories. It would have been hard to have matched these speeches elsewhere among America's recent graduates for clear, energetic English and maturity of thought and judgment. The Spectator was reminded of the splendid carriage of the head caused by bearing a burden upon it. No white graduate carries the load these young men do, or has such obstacles to overcome. The education and the burden work together for good.

Hampton, indeed, is like the banyan tree of the geographies. It sends out workers who take root somewhere else and straightway establish a new stem in the educational grove. To this Commencement, for example, came back Booker Washington, educated at Hampton, educator at Tuskegee, with more scholars than the original Alma Mater. Standing on the platform, he told how on his master's bill of sale had once been written "Booker, $400." "All that I may have been worth more than that since-I owe to Hampton!" he told the gradu, ates. Certainly it would be hard to compute the money value to America of what this unique university has done in turning out leaders for a race. But, in another direction, as the Spectator walked through the shops and class-rooms, and saw the interaction of industrial and academic education, more perfectly worked out here than anywhere else in the world, he began to feel deeper uses yet, and to agree with a friend who said, "Other countries are sending to Hampton to find out its methods. America is content to think of it as of benefit to a struggling race, but other nations see clearer. The greatest value of Hampton is not to one race, but to the educational ideals of all the world. What is being done here by the dominant race for others is going to react for the better education of its own children."

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THE NEW TURKEY

BY THE REV. GEORGE WASHBURN, D.D.

Dr. Washburn was President of Robert College at Constantinople for a quarter of a century, and perhaps no higher authority could be found among American writers as to political, racial, and religious problems in southeastern Europe.—THE EDITORS.

AT last we have a New Turkey. Abdul Medjid was the incarnation of the old, and so long as he was on the throne there could be no assurance of any permanent change. All the joy and enthusiasm of last July was premature. On the Bosphorus we used often to see wonderful displays of color as the sun rose over the hills of Asia, which seemed to promise a beautiful day, but the clouds would gather darkness and before long the winds from the Black Sea would change the blue Bosphorus into a stormy sea. I used to be reminded of the old saying, "Red sky in the morning, sailors take warning." The skies were bright enough in July, but the Young Turks failed to take warning. Their triumph seemed to be so complete and the Sultan so complaisant that they took no note of the clouds that were gathering, and forgot the cave of the winds until the storm burst. For the moment the Young Turks in Constantinople lost heart, but the rally in Macedonia was magnificent. The counter-revolution lasted only eleven days. Constantinople was taken by storm, the Sultan dethroned and imprisoned, a new Sultan proclaimed. The sun has come out again. There is a New Turkey, but what will come of it remains to be seen. Whatever hope there may be of realizing the dreams of last July is in the Committee of Union and Progress, or, as they prefer now to be called, the Party of Union and Progress. They propose to rule through the Parliament, in which they have a large majority, and to carry on the administration through ministers responsible to the Parliament, although, according to the constitution, the Sultan appoints the Grand Vizier and the Sheik-ul-Islam.

The first question is, What is to be expected of the new Sultan, who is also the Caliph of the Moslem world?

As he has never been permitted to take any part in the government of the Empire, we can form no opinion of his capacity as a ruler, and very few know anything of him personally. A friend of mine, a Hungarian gentleman, was allowed to give him lessons on the piano for several years, and from him I have heard much of Rachad Effendi, as he was then called. He is a pianist of some skill and something of an artist in painting. He managed to keep informed about the course of affairs in the world, and discussed them with my friend with intelligence. He had liberal ideas, and condemned his brothers' system of government very freely. There is every reason to believe that he will now act in sympathy with the Young Turks. He can never forget that his uncle Abd-ul-Aziz was deposed, as were his brothers Murad and Hamid. The one danger is that he may be assassinated by some Moslem fanatic, of whom there are many in Constantinople, in the hope that his cousin, Joussauf Izzedin, next heir to the throne, might prove a reactionary. He is not likely to be a leader, and the administration of the Government will be in the hands of the Grand Vizier. It has generally happened in the history of the Ottoman Empire that Sultans who personally assumed the direction of all the affairs of state have been followed by those who left everything to their Grand Viziers —or, as the Turks say, the rule of the Palace has always been followed by the rule of the Porte. The novelty of the present situation is that the Porte is to be controlled by a Parliament.

The Turkish Parliament consists of two Chambers—the Senate, whose members are appointed by the Sultan, and the Chamber of Deputies, chosen by the people. It represents the whole Empire and all the nationalities and religions of the Empire, but the great majority are Moslems—many of these are of the Ulema·

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but the members of the Chamber were chosen under the management of the Committee of Union and Progress, and they took care to secure for their party a large majority. The Parliament has been in session for several months, and has lived through two revolutions since April 13. I have read the full reports of its sessions, which have been published in the Constantinople papers. At first it was decidedly boyish in its manifestations, but it very soon settled down to business, and has compared very favorably with the Parliaments in the neighboring states. Its members had had no experience to guide them, but they have made great progress in parliamentary law, and have shown a remarkable knowledge of the conditions and needs of the country, as well as of international questions involving their relations with Austria, Bulgaria, Greece, and other European states. Their good sense and self-restraint in these questions has been astonishing. If they have talked too much and done too little, this is the common weakness of all Parliaments, and is excusable in this case because of the frequent changes in the Ministry and the intrigues of the Sultan. I can see no reason in anything that has happened to question the possibility of genuine Parliamentary government in Turkey, but, as in Russia, the elections will have to be managed by the Government. The great mass of the people in both these countries are too ignorant, too uncivilized, to have any real voice in the choice of their rulers. All must depend upon the enlightened classes. What sort of a Deputy would be chosen by the Moslems of Adana? This is not the American idea of representative government, but Parliamentary government in England grew up on this plan, and for centuries the mass of the people had little direct voice in it.

Under these conditions the Turkish Parliament can rule only so long as it can control the army. It owes its existence to the army, and in the counter-revolution of Sultan Hamid it was the army of Shevket Pasha that gave it a new lease of life. It is the knowledge of this dependence upon the army that has led the Young Turks to insist upon extending the conscription to all the nationalities of the Empire. The army of Shevket Pasha included several thousand Christians and six hundred Jewish volunteers. With a mixed Ottoman army in place of a Moslem army there is reason to hope that it may support an Ottoman Parliament. There is danger, however, in the present situation in the provinces. The number of enlightened, educated officers in the army is small, and most of them are in the European provinces. One of the demands made by the revolting troops in April was the dismissal of all their educated officers. What the Hamidié regiments in Kurdistan, the regiments of the regular army in Asia Minor and Syria, will do remains to be seen. They evidently took part in the massacres in and about Adana, and it may be long before they are brought under control. The ordinary Turkish soldier is a barbarian, with the good as well as the bad qualities of the uncivilized, but he is generally a fanatic ready to do anything which appeals to him in the name of Islam.

I heard one of the distinguished German officers who was sent to Constantinople by the Emperor to reorganize the Turkish army, and who was with it in the war with Greece, declare that as soldiers the Turks were unsurpassed by any in Europe, but that, in general, the officers who had risen from the ranks were worthless. Those who are known as Young Turks have had a European training, either under these German officers at Constantinople or in some European army. Their spirit has been admirable. They have kept themselves in the background, and have manifested no inclination to put the military above the civil authority. This is hopeful.

But with a Sultan who is not likely to take the initiative in anything, with a new and inexperienced Parliament, with a divided army and a population too ignorant to understand the nature of civil liberty, the great question must be whether Turkey has any statesmen capable of directing the work of the Parliament, controlling the army, ruling the Empire, and teaching the people how to live under a free government. There are plenty of politicians of all nationalities, although most of them are of the pot-house variety, capable of endless inanities. There are

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strong men and good men among the Turks as well as in other nationalities. There have been Turks like Fuad Pasha and Aali Pasha who were recognized in Europe as statesmen; but the rule of Sultan Hamid has not been a school of statesmanship. It has debased the whole civil service, made it utterly corrupt, and favored only those who would serve the Palace camarilla. There are a few old men like Said and Kiamil Pashas, with the traditions of better times, who were disgraced by the Sultan and who are known to the world as having been statesmanlike; but the statesmen who are to save Turkey have yet to be discovered. The Young Turks have been forced to take the best men they could find from among those who have served Sultan Hamid, and give to them the highest offices of state—those whose records are the least bad, who may be supposed not to have approved of the tyranny of Hamid, and who now profess to be in hearty sympathy with the new order of things. The best men of the Young Turks have not had the experience which is necessary to fit them for the higher offices of state. They are better off in the army, where there are distinguished officers who are in hearty sympathy with them. It is not so easy to form an opinion of the Ulema. There are very able men among them, and as a general rule they are by no means so blindly fanatical as the ignorant classes. Some of them are known to be liberal in their ideas, and have been active in supporting the Young Turks. They have been very prominent in all the debates in the Parliament, and are likely to have much influence in the government. We may hope that the demand for statesmanship, which is really a matter of life and death for the New Turkey, may bring forward and develop the men to meet it. Hilmy Pasha, the present Grand Vizier, is perhaps the most promising of the former servants of Hamid. He must have been a party to the revolution of last July, as he was at that time the real ruler of Macedonia and must have known what was going on under his eyes for many months. There is no doubt of his being a man of great ability.

Ferid Pasha, the Minister of the Interior, a most important office, is an Albanian who was Grand Vizier for some years under Sultan Hamid. In some ways he is a very liberal and enlightened man, who has given his sons and daughters an English and French education, and no one doubts his ability; but he was a too faithful servant of Sultan Hamid to command at once the confidence of the public. It is probable that he has been appointed to this office to conciliate the Albanians, and possibly also as a warning to the Greeks to be more careful how they plot against the Young Turks.

Tevfik Pasha, who was Grand Vizier during the counter-revolution, can be best described as President Buchanan described himself. He is simply "an old public functionary."

Of the Young Turks in general, those whom I know personally and those whom I know most about are men of ability, possibly a little inclined to idealism, genuine patriots, honest and consecrated to the carrying out of their promises. If they have the time to gain experience in the practical administration of the Government, we may expect to find statesmen among them capable of directing the work of the Parliament, as well as generals who can be trusted to control the army.

When the Committee of Union and Progress brought about the revolution of last July, they believed that all Europe would welcome the advent of a reformed and regenerated Turkey. They were quickly undeceived. Austria and Bulgaria, supported by Germany, hastened to take advantage of the temporary weakness of Turkey to satisfy their own ambitions, and the most serious difficulties of the Young Turks came from their foreign relations. They were humiliated, but they met this crisis with great wisdom and self-restraint, sacrificing their pride to their desire to establish friendly relations with their neighbors. Now that Abdul-Hamid has disappeared from the scene, it is still their purpose to keep the peace with all the world, and to devote all their energies to make the New Turkey strong and prosperous. They will do their best to avoid all causes of complaint, and to prove to the world that the Turkish Government is as worthy as Japan to be treated as a civilized power. It remains to be seen

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how far the European Powers are ready to abandon the ambitions which they have cherished for two centuries, and to welcome what they have all the time professed to desire, the real reformation of the Turkish Empire. I think that the western Powers, England, France, and Italy, may be depended upon to support the New Turkey, and they will, of course, have the hearty sympathy of the United States; but I fear that there is no reason to hope that Russia, Austria, or Germany will give up any of their plans for aggrandizement at the expense of Turkey. They will take advantage of any internal troubles, such as are sure to come, to advance their own interests. Greece also has claims which she will be sure to press at the first opportunity. All her hopes for generations have been based upon the decline of the Turkish Empire. The last thing that she can desire is its regeneration. Bulgaria is more likely to find her interest in cultivating friendly relations with Turkey, until the time comes when Russia has so far recovered from her own weakness that she can lead a new pan-Slavic movement. That time may be far off, and before it comes unforeseen events may have given a new turn to European politics.

The diplomatic situation in Constantinople in the immediate future will be dominated by the effort of Germany to regain the influence which she had won under the old régime by her support of Abdul-Hamid in all his iniquities and her patronage of the Palace camarilla. Since last July German influence at Constantinople has been replaced by that of England, although Abdul-Hamid until his deposition still looked for support to Berlin. The German Ambassador, Baron von Marshall, is a very strong man, and there is likely to be a battle royal between him and the representatives of the Western Powers. We have reason to rejoice that we are to be represented there by a tried, experienced Ambassador who can be trusted to steer clear of this conflict and devote himself to American interests while he represents the hearty sympathy which Americans feel for the New Turkey. It is to be hoped that there will be no repetition of the ghastly Adana massacres in other parts of the country, but it is quite possible that there may be before the new Government gets full control of the administration. We may be sure that no more orders will go out from Constantinople to authorize such massacres. It is well known that the great massacre in Damascus and Mount Lebanon in 1859 and all the Bulgarian and Armenian massacres since that time have been authorized by the Sultan. The great massacre in Constantinople in 1896, when ten thousand Armenians were slaughtered in the streets, was not only ordered by Abdul-Hamid, but was planned and carried out under the immediate direction of the Minister of Police. It should not be forgotten, however, that there were many Moslems in all these places who not only condemned the action of the Government as contrary to the religion which they professed, but who risked their own lives and in some cases gave them up to save and protect their Christian neighbors. This is the spirit of the Young Turks who are now in power.

I have said that the outlook for the New Turkey is hopeful. All our hopes are really based upon the character of the Young Turks and their patriotic devotion to the reformation of the Empire on principles represented by their chosen watchwords, Liberty, justice, equality, fraternity. How many Young Turks there are we do not know. They must be few in comparison with the millions whom they hope to reform, but the events of the last nine months prove that they are much more numerous than any one could have imagined. Still, the obstacles in their way in the country itself and in the ambitions of the European Powers are so great that it would be folly to ignore the fact that this movement may result in the disintegration and destruction of the Turkish Empire, rather than in its regeneration and the restoration of its power. What the end may be is known only to God, but, whatever it may be, the work which the Young Turks are doing is a good work, and whatever they may accomplish in the education, elevation, and civilization of the people of Turkey will not be lost. It will be a gain to the world under whatever government these people may finally be destined to live. So with all our hearts we wish them God-speed.

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THE AMERICAN VILLAGE AT MESSINA

BY MAUD HOWE ELLIOTT

Easter Sunday, 1909.

THE American village at Messina—officially known as the "Zone of American Houses"—is separated from the city by the Torrente Zaera, at this season a wide, dry watercourse, in winter a foaming torrent from the mountains that rise behind Messina. The village stands in a lemon grove fronting the Straits of Messina, where the whirlpool Charybdis darkens the sapphire water with streaks of intenser blue. Across the narrow strip of sea a little to the left lies Scylla, directly opposite Reggio, the dark, rugged Calabrian mountains, still streaked with snow, towering above them. This is classic ground, familiar to every schoolboy. Ulysses and his men were here, Æneas too, and after them a long line of heroes and conquerors. Here Greece and Phœnicia met and fought; Carthage had her first battle with Rome; then came the Goths, the Saracens, the Normans, the Germans, the French, the Spaniards. Last of all came Garibaldi to win the jewel Sicily for King Victor's crown. All these demigods and heroes came sword in hand to fight for the possession of Sicily, fairest of earth's islands. For what, in the name of history, have these last invaders come? What booty can they hope to find in this ruined city of the dead Messina? Why does the American flag wave over the shore where the Cyclops worked and played? What is the origin of the American village at Messina?

Like all things that have life, it grew out of a seed. The seed was the hint dropped shortly after the earthquake by one of the Italian authorities. Mr. Griscom, the American Ambassador, was told that if the Americans had any large sum of money at their disposal, this could best be spent in buying lumber to build houses for the homeless people of Messina, Reggio, and the outlying villages destroyed by the earthquake and tidal wave of December 28. The seed fell on good ground: Mr. Griscom took the hint. He found not only the lumber, but the men to build the houses, the man to lead the enterprise. When Mr. McKinley wanted a man to take "A Message to Garcia," that man was found—you know the story. When Mr. Griscom wanted a man to build the new Messina, that man was found.

What has been accomplished in the last three months seems a miracle. As if by magic, groups of neat, comfortable frame cottages have arisen in every part of the stricken district from the still quaking ground. At Reggio five hundred houses are being built; at Sbarre, a tiny village, one hundred and thirty-five; at Villa San Giovanni, forty; at scores of towns on both sides of the Straits, cottages—they call them here *barracche*—are being put up according to the needs of the locality. At Messina, where the need is greatest, the relief work is most considerable. Lieutenant-Commander Reginald Rowan Belknap, the American Naval Attaché of the American Embassies at Berlin and Rome, is in charge of the work; he makes his headquarters at the American camp by the Torrente Zaera.

Belknap is one of those natural leaders of men who seem providentially to arise in great emergencies. His tireless energy, his cheerful courage, are positively infectious; his example and influence are felt in every phase of the great enterprise of which he is the leader.

On the 22d of February—auspicious day—the Eva, the first ship bringing the American lumber, dropped anchor in the port of Messina. Captain Belknap and his men were already here on board the United States supply ship Celtic, commanded by Captain Huse. For the first three weeks the party slept on board the Celtic. When enough houses were ready to accommodate them, they took possession of the camp. An ice-house was built, and provisions landed from the Celtic. Good water was obtained by tapping the aqueduct high above the city. Then Captain Huse and his good ship Celtic sailed away, leaving Belknap and his men in the desert that was Messina. Lieutenant Buchanan from the Scorpion is second in rank; then comes Lieutenant Wilcox, in

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charge of the building at Reggio; Ensign Spofford, whose duty is to land and distribute the timber; and Dr. Donaldson, U. S. N., whose special care is the health of the expedition. The poor people in the neighborhood have found him out, and the unofficial work of this good physician deserves a chapter to itself. The doctor's patients are not ungrateful. This Easter Sunday he has had as thank-offerings a basket of golden citrons, a blue heron warranted to be "good eating," and a handful of coppers from an old woman whose grandchild he has cured.

It is quite characteristic of Captain Belknap that, having no regular architect at hand, with a wave of his magician's wand he transforms John Elliott, the painter, into the architect and designer of the expedition. I do not know the names of all the thirty petty officers and enlisted men, but I know that from Hood, the Master-at-Arms, and West, the Yeoman, they are all good men and true, men I am proud to have known and called my friends. Ten American master carpenters oversee the work of the five hundred Italian workmen employed. These skilled mechanics drill and train their men with care and energy. The camp is a school of carpentry. Perhaps five per cent of the Italians are really good workmen; the majority are careless and slovenly in their craft. The houses are perhaps the least part of the good work our carpenters are doing. They are building better than they know; they are establishing a standard of excellence unknown in a community where, though good Saint Joseph is highly honored, his craft is sadly slighted.

When it is finished, the zone of American houses will be a well-laid-out town of fifteen hundred detached frame houses. The houses, painted white, with pretty dark-green doors and blinds, are raised slightly from the ground; they have high sloping roofs with ventilators, doors and windows of the most convenient kind. The interior may be divided into two or four rooms according to the need of the tenants. In the rear of each house is a small kitchen with brick floor and walls, a masonry range containing two iron grates for burning charcoal. The greatest care is taken in building the kitchens to minimize the danger of fire. Sicily has never had a Wooden Age till now. Here the primitive man left his cave to build a cave-like house of the soft, easily worked tufa stone of the island. Our Northmen, who are building the Sicilians their new homes, are at great pains to teach them how to live safely in wooden dwellings. Captain Belknap and his "architect" have fought hard to save the life of every tree that does not actually interfere with the construction of the buildings. Some of the streets have long lines of lemon trees, with here and there a fig tree. They have saved a long avenue of shade trees, for which the guests of the Hotel Regina Elena will some day bless them. The hotel is one of the founder's happiest inspirations. It is of prime importance that there should be a place where the business men of Messina can stay. They are now forced to sleep at Catania or Taormina, and travel back and forward every day, as there is no place where they can stay at Messina. The train service, bad in Sicily at the best, since the earthquake has been abominable. Not only is much valuable time lost, but the wear and tear of crawling trains and interminable delays involve a great waste of vitality. The hotel will contain eighty-five rooms. It stands at the edge of the town, commanding a splendid view of the Straits of Messina and the Calabrian coast. The masonry foundations of the hotel are being laid as fast as the dreadful weather allows. The torrential rains that have fallen the greater part of the time since the earthquake are among the difficulties our men have had to contend with. A great shed has been raised; here, when the downpour makes it impossible to work outside, the master carpenters and their men saw the planks and prepare the lumber under cover. Near the hotel the Church of Santa Croce will stand, the schools, the public workroom, and a home for the aged poor under the care of those angels of mercy, the Little Sisters of the Poor.

The scene at the camp recalls the building of Carthage. The busy master-carpenters, each with his foot-rule in his pocket, move about among their gangs of patient Italian laborers. One measures out on the bare ground the place where the timbers that form the sills of the next house shall be laid; another directs the

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driver of a heavy ox-team where to discharge a load of fragrant new-cut pine boards.

The camp is astir early. The first sounds come from the kitchen, where the American who cooks for the men and the Sicilian who cooks for the officers are busy with their work. Next comes the music of the goat bells. A great herd of goats comes rambling into the camp with the herders. Jugs and bowls are brought out and the morning supply of milk is drawn from the streaming udders of the patient goats who browse and nibble on whatever eatables they can find. By half-past six breakfast is over for all save the few who must work late at night and in the morning may have half an hour's grace.

The workmen arrive after breakfast (this week five hundred are employed), and in the office tool-chests are given out and each man's number is recorded. The boys come, eating their crusts of bread, sleepy-eyed and inclined to take a few minutes from their working time to finish their scanty meal. The men saunter to their work smoking their pipes. The voice of the great "boss" carpenter is heard here, there, everywhere, "Get to work. *Al lavoro! Al lavoro!* Don't you talk your Italian to me!"

So, with much exhortation, the gangs are hectored and herded to their work; soon both admonition and expostulation are drowned in the song of the saw and plane, in the good chorus of the hammer. The anvil chorus seems a tame thing when one has listened to this glorious music after the dreadful silence of the desolate streets of Messina, where the dead still lie in tens of thousands, buried only in the débris of their houses. At twelve o'clock work comes to a halt. Francesco taps at the door of the office and murmurs: "Dinny ready, mister." Francesco is a Sicilian of the Greek type, straight as a lance, with fine head, thick curling hair, and eyes of gray sapphire. He escaped unhurt from his house the morning of the earthquake, after lying for hours under the ruins.

At dinner Captain Belknap sits at the head of the long table. On his right is Commandante Brofferio, of the Italian navy, attached to the party. He is a blond, blue-eyed Genoese, gentle of speech, firm of will, an invaluable aid to the captain, a worthy fellow-citizen of Columbus. Then, seated in the order of their rank, come the officers, the architect, and the master carpenters. Francesco and Pietro, the Sicilan waiters who serve the table, have a third helper, a magnificent American negro. This full-blooded African giant stands six feet two; he is broad in the shoulders, narrow in the hips, with big, patient eyes like the eyes of the red Sicilian oxen. He has the same pictorial "value" as the blacks that Paul Veronese paints in his pictures of the feasts of Venice. He offers to the Americans at table a dish to supplement the good loin of roast American pork with a gentle lisp: "Apple thause, thir?"

After dinner there is a short pause; work begins only at one o'clock. Pipes are lighted; in the square the sailors have a game of baseball, watched and cheered by a delighted crowd of Messinesi. In the middle of the square floats the flag. The sight of it flying stiff to the breeze over the busy camp, where the neat, tense American men teach their lesson of labor, do their work of love among the sad broken remnant of the people of Messina, grips the heart as never did the great banner floating over the capitol. Work is over for the men at half-past five; for the masters, only at bedtime. There is no theater, no place of amusement, not even a cinematograph, in desolate Messina. At sunset our young sailors, who have worked all day and are not yet tired, box and wrestle together, for the lust of life that is in them. A crowd of boys and men gathers to watch and applaud. If the sounds of labor are welcome in this silent city, the joyous sounds of play are twice welcome to the people.

On Tuesday, April 7, Mr. Roosevelt and Mr. Griscom came to Messina. The steamer that was taking the ex-President to Mombasa stopped at the port and remained with steam up for four hours, long enough for him to see the ruins no words, no picture, can express. He talked with the King and Queen, who had timed their visit to Messina to meet him here. The same morning the King visited the camp. It was a day of such interest

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that I have asked Mr. Elliott to let me copy the entry from his little diary:

EXTRACT FROM MR. ELLIOTT'S DIARY

The Camp, Messina, April 7.

The King arrived unexpectedly at the camp at 9 A.M. Lieutenant Buchanan, Commandante Brofferio, and I accompanied him and his staff through the village. They came into my little office. I showed the King my designs for the hospital and the cottages we are to build at Villaggio Regina Elena, a small model village the Queen has built on the other side of Messina. He liked the plans very much. When I spoke of the great disaster he said that the American duty put on lemons was almost as great a disaster for Sicily as the earthquake. Though, he added, "America is perfectly right." At 7 P.M. I was taken on board the Umberto I by the steam pinnace of the Dandolo. I was received by the Queen, a most fascinating lady. She thanked me many times, till I felt quite embarrassed. She was really very enthusiastic about the plans for the hospital and the cottages. The subject of the allotment of the houses came up. I said I thought the plan the King had spoken of as his idea—the drawing of the cottages by lots—was the only way, in spite of the fact that some undeserving people might be housed while people of higher grade, really the greatest sufferers, might get nothing.

Mr. Roosevelt was most cordial to us all. After saying lots and lots about the splendid work of the officers, sailors, and carpenters, he spoke of the rest of us volunteers who, he said, have given our time and energies to help a philanthropic work. The Italians cried, "Long live our President," and ran along holding on to his carriage and cheering him—a moving sight. The Queen is worshiped by the people in these parts, and deserves to be. Women in their petticoats, half dressed, evidently in the act of doing their hair, raced after her carriage with the ends of their hair in their teeth. Somehow this was curiosity, admiration, and awe—even worship, that seemed to be expressed. The same might be said of their attitude towards the King. I thought they really seemed to worship him, and perhaps love him, too—but with Roosevelt the feeling expressed was different. It seemed to be admiration and brother love—that was pleasant to see.

Mr. Roosevelt met at the camp that day other men who are busy housing the homeless, clothing the naked, feeding the hungry, best of all, setting the idle to work. From Reggio came Winthrop Chanler, Robert Hale, and Gerome Brush. From Taormina, under the shadow of snowy Etna, came Harry Bowdoin and Charles King Wood, who from the first have worked gallantly in the district between Messina and Taormina, where, after the earthquake, the people came like a swarm of locusts down the coast and settled in the villages that had been the least injured.

You, who have worked as hard at home to raise the money for the relief of Sicily and Calabria, may rest assured that your sacrifices have been well worth while, that your great largess is being well distributed. It was soon realized by Mr. Griscom and the members of the American Relief Committee that the disaster was such a colossal one that it was not enough to give food, clothing, money; that more precious thing, labor, must be given as well. Mr. Griscom's divining-rod has found the workers in every community where there are American or English residents, or even tourists, and he has set them all gallantly to work.

The services in Messina this Easter Sunday have been far more impressive than any I ever saw at Rome. The pontifical mass was said by the good archbishop in a small wooden theater that has escaped destruction. The congregation was a large one, for there are now forty thousand persons in Messina. Many of the congregation were maimed or crippled. A man with a bandaged right arm at the elevation of the Host struck his breast three times and murmured low, "*Mea culpa, mea culpa, mea maxima culpa.*" Poor soul! whatever his sins have been, his sufferings must have matched them! In the afternoon the images of the Saviour and of Mary the Mother were carried in procession through Messina. Cries of "Viva Maria" followed the figures. A young girl took her earrings from her ears, and one of the bearers climbed up and hung the offering in Mary's girdle.

"Ah, Santissima Maria!" cried a poor old woman with tear-worn eyes, "you have nothing, not even a drum, to do you honor! Ah! the band that went before you a year ago! The musicians are all dead. I lost my two daughters. They are under the ruins; may I meet them in Paradise! See, this is my husband; he is blind; we two old ones were saved; all the children and the grandchildren were taken."

As the figure of the Christ passed, the

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old blind man fell on his knees, stretching out his arms and crying in a terrible voice: "*Santissimo padre*, help us, help us!"

When the procession was out of sight, we made our way to the Cathedral, passing the "tell-tale tower" of the Annunciata; the hands of the clock still point to the fatal hour of the earthquake, twenty minutes past five. It is not easy to reach the Cathedral. We picked our way through almost impassable streets, climbed mountains of débris. At one place we found ourselves on a level with the second story of a fine house. We looked into the tragic wreck of what had been a handsome bedroom. The front of the house had fallen into the heap of ruins on which we stood. Two beds stood side by side. On the wall hung a costly mirror without even a crack. Near the door stood two trunks and a valise with the labels of several fashionable Continental hotels.

"The people who lived here?" I asked my guide.

"Under the ruins; they had just returned from their wedding journey."

At last we reached the Cathedral square. The noble central doorway is still standing; over it is a marble Madonna. The child has fallen from her arms. Then comes a great rent, for the upper part of the façade has fallen. The mighty columns of the nave (they once upheld the roof of the temple of Poseidon at Faro Point) are snapped like pipe-stems. Two only remain upright and uninjured. The high altar, a marvel of jasper, chalcedony, and lapis lazuli, has fallen, broken into a thousand pieces. The splendid gold mosaics of the apse, so hard to see in the old days, are now easily visible. In the central arch over the ruined altar the figure of the Christ is almost intact. From the rich gloom of the mosaics his grave face looks out on the ruins of Messina, upon his world. For the world has never been so truly Christian as it is to-day; not even when Richard of the Lion Heart wintered in Messina on his way to Palestine to fight for the Holy Sepulcher, that same winter that he took to wife the lovely Berengaria. A new name is added to the long list of those who have made their camp beside Charybdis, opposite Scylla, on the most beautiful, the most deadly coast in all the world—the Americans, who come not to conquer nor to ravage, but to help and to save. The little boy who greeted one of our men this Easter morning with the words "Be thou blessed," expressed the general sentiment of the Sicilans towards the Americans. We are so busy looking forward and looking backward that we sometimes lose sight of the only thing that is really ours to make or to mar—to-day; but in the years to come, old men and old women will tell the tale, hand down the story of these latter-day Crusaders, Captain Belknap and his men, and what they did in their camp beside the Torrente Zaera.

Easter Tuesday.

News has just come to the camp of the death of Marion Crawford. It was known that he was ill, but hopes were held out of his recovery. A late letter from him told of the refugees from Sicily that he had sheltered in his beautiful villa at San Agnello di Sorrente. In these last three months, though he was suffering greatly, and perhaps knew that he was dying, he worked early and late for these poor people. He died at sunset on Good Friday, sitting in his chair looking out over the bay towards Vesuvius, just as the procession of Mary the Mother returning from the search for her Son passed his door. His last words echo nobly across the sea to the camp at Messina under Etna:

"*Muoio con Gesu Cristo. Entro sereno nell' eternità.*"

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A CHRONICLE OF FRIENDSHIPS

BY ELIZABETH WALLACE

A GRACIOUS and pious tribute to the beauty of youthful association among a group of men of talent who have appreciated it has been paid by one of them, Mr. Will H. Low. If faith in the worth of companionship has been shaken by the constant jar of the common struggle to keep pace with the times, or if we are possessed by a cynicism that destroys serene enjoyment of affectionate and useful intimacy, we will find a breath of renewal in this graceful, unpretentious "Chronicle of Friendships" (Scribners). It is written more especially to preserve impressions of the man who, above all others, possessed the gift of friendship, Robert Louis Stevenson.

Mr. Low, after some study in New York, went to Paris in his youth, and was enrolled as a student under Carolus-Duran, in 1873. While at first he tolerated his own countrymen, he really avoided them in the mass, and devoted himself wisely to a group of Frenchmen, from whom he absorbed the spirit as well as the language of France. He was looked upon for a time as a renegade by the Anglo-Saxon element among his fellow-students, whose patriotism rebelled at his "militant approval of France and things French," as he puts it. This attitude, however, led him to become the defender of a newcomer, the cousin of Stevenson and his forerunner, Robert Alan Mowbray Stevenson, of whom Mr. Low speaks with profound admiration. He was older than the rest of the students, and had a gift of talk that skillfully put the immature arguments of his fellows to rout. It was finally agreed tacitly that he was not to be aroused. It was through this cousin that Louis was introduced to the company of young men. Louis was "going in" for literature, as all the rest were "going in" for something or other. He came to Paris in the spring of 1875, and then began a friendship that lasted to the end of his days.

In that first morning's talk among the three young men, the writer discovered Stevenson's sense of fitness in language. They were discussing Balzac, when suddenly, without warning, Louis changed from English to French, and it was evident that for discussion of characters, events, and style which were all French in essence, Stevenson was not ill-inspired, and he spoke with care and excellent knowledge of the idiom. Even then he was not strong, though during his future visits to France he joined the others in long walks, and led a semi-amphibious life on and in the river Loing. "My illness is an incident outside of my life," was already his watchword. The narrative of the meeting between the young artist and Jean François Millet in the home of the latter at Barbizon is most interesting. Two points Mr. Low emphasizes, seeking to correct errors. While poverty did at times become a misery to Millet, both that and the fact of his peasant birth have been made too much of by his biographers. As Mr. Low says, we must not forget that the intellectual life of France is constantly alimented by this strong and vigorous stock. The arts particularly appear to recruit their practitioners from the peasant class. He says: "Many a bachelor of sciences or letters returns in his vacations to eat the parental soup in a room with an earthen floor, surrounded by an admiring family who can hardly speak, much less read or write, their native language. One of my French comrades, as an excuse for his absence from a student gathering, pleaded one day that he was obliged to take a French lesson, as he had just won the Prix de Rome, 'and now,' he added, 'as I must meet well-educated people, I must learn to speak the language correctly.'" The Millet family lived scrupulously apart from both their peasant neighbors and the few resident artists. Millet welcomed the modest youth, and, becoming interested, showed him many of his pictures stacked against the wall. It was his habit to begin many things, often as a memory of something he had seen, and lay them aside to be taken up later and carried further. One canvas stirred in the student's mind a new con-

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sciousness of the poignant sensation of the awakening of spring. The picture now hangs in the Louvre, where it is well known, but it remains unique in the memory of the writer. Millet taught that the artist should not be the slave of his model, but the master who could give to his work "the typical rather than the accidental character of nature."

Low arranged a visit to Millet for his friend "Bob" Stevenson, who was convinced that all the great artists were dead, and even their influence lost. In the presence of the simple greatness of the master his fluent tongue was mute, and, once out upon the village street, he turned, and, with a droll surrender in his look and tone, said, "Do you consider it fair play, in a conversation between gentlemen concerning minor poets, to spring Shakespeare on your opponent?" The narrative is full of delightful stories of the doings of these students, and the two Stevensons are often the central figures in both work and play. It was at Grez, not far from Montigny, where Mr. Low was established with his young wife, that Louis first saw the woman who was later to become his wife. She and her daughter, his future patient amanuensis, had quietly taken their places at the Inn table, and were accepted by the artist group as "of the right sort."

Not to linger too long among the French memories, we turn to the friendship that bound the author-artist to Saint-Gaudens. To him he opened his door one day in Paris, to be greeted with "Your name is Low, is it not? You had a bully picture in the Academy of Design last spring, and I wanted to come and tell you so. My name is Saint-Gaudens." "Come in," I replied; "I know you very well." Saint-Gaudens's reputation was great even in his student days; as Mr. Low says, the place which among the younger painters was given to John Sargent, and which later Macmonnies, Saint-Gaudens's pupil, inherited, had been given to the master sculptor, early, in the *atelier Jouffroy*, where he had studied. From this time on for many years the confidence and intimacy between the two was undisturbed, enlivened by frank difference of opinion and ennobled by mutual appreciation. The tribute paid to him by his friend is beautiful and sincere. A pleasant section of the book is devoted to the author's experiences and memories of his American home, a picture that will awaken sympathetic understanding in many readers. Of William Morris Hunt the student had heard much at Barbizon, and on returning to America he sought the artist at his work decorating the Assembly Chamber of the Capitol at Albany. The interview, opening in a disappointing way, was electrified by a mention of Barbizon days, and Hunt showed his work with a contagious enthusiasm. The next year he died, and now the decorations he painted directly on the sandstone are hidden from view by a false ceiling built as a sounding-board in the Assembly Chamber. Other artists who pass in reminiscent procession across these pages are La Farge, Wyatt Eaton, Eastman Johnson, Gaudez, the French sculptor, and later Rodin, who made a bust of Henley in Paris, where several of the old friends were gathered perhaps a decade after the happy student days. In the quarter-century that has elapsed since those days many of the group have passed from earth—among others Robert Louis Stevenson and Augustus Saint-Gaudens; but their memory and their enduring work remain to cheer and encourage those who are left.

Quite recently tidings have come of the sudden death of Mrs. Low, to whom the book is dedicated. Ever since the time when the young French wife was established in the little home in Montigny, whence radiated a true spirit of hospitality, and later, in Paris or in America, "B. J. L." always welcomed the comrades who found her, as they said of another addition to their circle, a woman "of the right sort." She, too, has gone to join that constantly augmenting company of friends, leaving unfinished her translation of the works of Robert Louis Stevenson into French. In 1888 she translated "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde," and for many years had been a valued contributor to French and American periodicals. It is quite impossible to escape feeling her influence in these chronicles, where she evidently was one of the strong bonds binding these talented men and women together.

The book is beautifully illustrated with pictures by the author, and reproductions

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from his collections. Some interesting sketch-portraits, and a photogravure of Millet's "Spring," with the author's first picture accepted by the French Salon, 1876, are among them.

The texture of the "Chronicles" is so closely woven, the threads of narrative, autobiography, and memories are so intertwined, that it is difficult to take away such bits as seem particularly brilliant or attractive without marring both them and the effect of the whole well-wrought tapestry. It is a book to be read quietly and with sympathetic appreciation of its sincerity and of the high ideals of its author.

THE SOCIALIZATION OF A GARDEN

BY ELLA BOND JOHNSTON

THIS garden was the ordinary rectangular portion of the earth's surface which our civilization has decreed shall lie behind the back door and be inclosed by high board fences. Such an inclosure is familiarly known as a "back yard," and is our civilized way of preserving in city life our individual right to our own ash-pile and garbage-can, while we pay our respects to the "City Beautiful" by the geranium bed in the front yard. Doubtless all this is a survival of the early day when the pioneer expressed his budding sense of decent living by concealing behind the cabin the wood-pile and pig-pen and facing the front door to the public highway.

It seems a stupid and foolish fashion to retain in city building, where in very truth you cannot live to yourself alone. Some windows in all your neighbors' houses look down on your back yard, and, however effectively "Queen Anne" your house may be in front, some glimpses of a "Mary Ann" back-door yard may reach the passer-by.

The garden of this story was, then, the typical back yard, shut in from neighbor, back alley, and side street by a high board fence, a little unsteady on its posts and with its fading coat of whitewash scarred by many attacks of the youthful marauders of the street. Such it was when the old house to which it belonged was bought by the Sensitive Man and the Solid Woman. They bought the house, not because it suited them—in truth, they had to give up all their cherished dreams of a "William Morris" house—but because the time had come when not dreams but necessity decided for a new home. The old house might have been, what old houses often are, colonial and beautiful, but it was neither. It fitted no style or period. It was just a house, however, roomy and rambling enough to be not wholly uninteresting.

The location on the corner of two of the widest and most beautifully shaded streets in the town was considered so desirable that it added several hundred dollars to the purchase price. The outlook was indeed attractive. The first night after they moved in, when the Sensitive Man threw open his shutter to view the heavens—his usual evening devotion—he looked off to the west between two near-by church spires and saw the silver slip of a young moon hanging over the limbed archway of the long street. He took it as a promise to be fulfilled of happy days in the new house. While he was thrilling with the beauty of the scene and murmuring his gratitude for this new outlook—outlook so much more essential to happiness than houses—the Solid Woman looked over his shoulder and said: "The place isn't what we wanted, but I don't believe we will lose any money on it. It is a good neighborhood, and I observe all the buildings look quite substantial." The Sensitive Man smiled patiently and replied: "At any rate, my dear, if the house is disappointing, we have this portion of the sky and a generous bit of the earth's surface in our back yard, where

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we will have a garden, and you will like that, I am sure."

The back yard contained a few scrubby fruit trees, an old shed for storage, a stable and a wood-house, though the horse was kept in the public livery stable, and the wood and the coal found ample room in the basement. Any plans for beautifying this back yard must include some means of concealing these outbuildings and the board fences. Nature's way of covering decay and ugliness is with vines; so vines were planted in profusion, and these did shut off the views and make a background of greenery for flowers. Within this secluded place the Solid Woman and the Sensitive Man dug and planted and made a bower of bloom for themselves. Here they worked and read, sometimes served the meals, and were content—except that the Sensitive Man could not quite forget that he had left for his neighbor and the passer-by the unadorned outside view of sheds and board fences. However, he tried to forget, and they might have lived happily ever afterward and this story never have been written—but something happened.

In a far-away city a little human desire in the heart of a man to make beautiful and abiding the memory of his beloved mother grew and grew in strength and purpose until there was builded on the lots across the alley from the Sensitive Man's garden a splendid gray-stone memorial church. There was a lofty Gothic tower with swinging chime bells, a red tile roof, and a great gable end with its beautiful Tiffany window to look down on the shed roofs and the vines and flowers.

There was no longer content in the garden. The Solid Woman did rejoice, it is true, in the nearness of their property to the costly church, but the Sensitive Man's soul shrank within him when he saw how much of the view of the church was cut off by his old buildings. The harsh lines of the stable roof cutting across the stone tracery of the stained-glass window was more than he could endure, and he felt that something would have to be done about it. He knew that he had no moral right to allow those sheds to hide the beauty of the church from every one who passed along the side street, and he knew also that in the end, to preserve peace in his own soul, he would have to remove everything in his garden that was not in harmony with that beautiful background. He realized keenly how absurd and impractical his view of the situation would seem to any business man, but when he looked up at the beauty which had come to him with the magic of a fairy tale without his even "rubbing the lamp," he knew that some mystic power held him from ever marring that beauty.

When he tried to explain to the Solid Woman how he felt about the matter and what he wanted to do, she exclaimed, "Why, you foolish idealist, do you mean that you would tear down all the buildings and fences just because they do not look pretty against the church?" "Yes," he answered, rather shamefacedly, "that is what we ought to do." "But don't you know," she said, "that you can't get them torn down even for the gift of the material in them, and, besides, what would you put in their place? We can't turn our pretty garden out to the public gaze." He hesitated a little in his reply, knowing her good judgment in practical matters, then finally said: "My dear Lady Sensible, I have thought for many days about this matter, and I hope you will be able to see it as I do. It will no doubt cost us a little money to tear everything down—well! let it. We spend money to get what we want; isn't it just as reasonable to spend money to rid ourselves of what we do not want? I should like to cast into the pile several useless things we own. I have been planning something to put in place of the buildings that I think is quite suitable, and I believe it will, therefore, be beautiful. In place of the fence we will have a hedge. I found some barberry plants at the nursery which have been waiting five years for an appreciator. The purple-green foliage will make a most pleasing contrast to the grass and trees. Then we must have a few evergreens with their pointed tops showing against the gray-stone background. About them we can plant hollyhocks, phlox, peonies, and many old-fashioned plants, and thus make a picture in form and color, by using the sweet common flowers in a beautiful way.

"Then if it should happen that a friend

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or neighbor or a stranger passing by should feel refreshed with a look at our garden or inspired by the more beautiful view of the church which our plan will give, why should we not be happy to open our yard to the public gaze? Most of the people who make up the 'public gaze' have too few restful and beautiful spots to look on. I should think they would grow so soul-weary of streets and pavements and brick walls, and I should think—" But here the Sensitive Man realized that the Solid Woman was losing interest, and he broke off soaring to ask her what she really thought of his plan.

She smiled indulgently and replied: "I am perfectly willing to try your plan. You make it sound most attractive; but," she added, "there isn't a particle of business sense in doing what you propose."

One day in autumn the workmen appeared with hammer and crowbar, and in a short time the buildings and fences were down and carted away. Much curiosity was manifested in the neighborhood as to what kind of building the Sensitive Man was intending to build on that favored spot. Before nightfall he was offered a goodly sum for enough of the back yard to squeeze a house on, facing the side street; he was advised that an apartment-house would be a paying investment, and one man urged him to build an up-to-date dwelling-house that he might lease at a good figure for a number of years. To all of these and to others inquiring what he really was going to do, he replied: "I merely want to give you a better view of the church and make a garden. I am not trying to make money. I am only trying to live up to my background." Which reply sent them off tapping their foreheads significantly, for certainly no sane man would give such a foolish answer. The Solid Woman was much disturbed, and wondered how they could afford to ignore such chances to make money, but the Sensitive Man consoled her by saying, "My dear, we will never be rich, but we may perhaps be interesting. We will never have money to lend, but we may be permitted to lend beauty and charm to this neighborhood if we are successful with our garden. We will hope to help along the day when back yards will no longer be walled in for private dumping-grounds, but be made beautiful outdoor living-rooms, a joy for all who may see." Then he added anxiously, "Are you not satisfied to go on with our plans?" "Oh! yes," she said, "I haven't my head in the air as you have, but I am sure I shall enjoy the digging and planting and all the garden-making, for we will have no 'Elizabeth and her German Garden' around here—we'll do our own planting and tending. We won't miss that greatest pleasure of a garden."

And so it came about that the barberry hedge was planted and flourished; the young spruces etched their serrate greenness against the gray wall; the hollyhocks flaunted their glowing colors, and the hydrangeas, peonies, and phlox each fitted their places and completed the harmonious picture.

The Sensitive Man walked in his garden in the evening hour and thought himself a rich man having many treasures. He loved to watch the daylight die, as it crept slowly out of the garden, climbed the church wall in shadowy grayness, touched the red roof with a richer hue, and warmed the high tower with the last of its golden light.

Perhaps then the great window would be lighted and shine over the garden like an entrance to some paradise, and the sweet tones of the organ could be heard, or the bells in the tower would chime out some old, familiar hymn, while the four-o'clocks would fill the air with their unforgetable perfume, an incense offering to the Goddess of Beauty.

One particular evening when the Sensitive Man was walking in his garden and dreaming of the day when art would make our cities as restful as the fields and hills, and beauty would find her rightful place in our civilization, the Solid Woman came out to him and said, "I want to tell you, dear, that Mr. Veryrich walked by to-day and stopped to admire our garden. He said he would like such a garden in his back yard, but he found it difficult to hire a man here who knew how to take care of a garden; and then he said to tell you that you had made the old place beautiful and had added about two thousand dollars to its value. I told him I was glad to hear that, and would hasten to tell you.

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I am delighted that the beauty of our garden has also a commercial value." The Sensitive Man smiled his patient smile and said: "Verily, O woman! you are of the age in which you live, unwilling to accept beauty for her own sweet self, but must have her hands always crossed with silver."

THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE

WHAT IT IS AND HOW TO IMPROVE IT

BY W. MARTIN SWIFT

Wall Street is now suffering the penalties of privacy. The reader of this article, by applying to the various departments of our State and National Governments, can obtain, free of charge, detailed information regarding the business done by any of our great industries—agriculture, mining, manufacturing, or commerce; but to whom should he apply for information as to the business done in Wall Street? Stock and bond quotations there are in abundance; but what is the inner significance, and what the true functions and real usefulness, of our Stock Exchanges, are questions to which most men find no answer. The author of the following article has had seven years' experience with Wall Street, first as banking and general editor of a daily financial paper, and later as statistician and "financial man" for a well-known banking firm. The article was largely suggested by a paper entitled "Ten Per Cent Margin," by Mr. C. Norman Fay, one of three "Plain Tales from Chicago" lately printed in The Outlook.—THE EDITORS.

NO great institution in the country is more generally misunderstood than the New York Stock Exchange. Most of its members do not themselves understand it, because they are not economists, and are quite too much engaged with business matters to inquire into its functions and usefulness. The majority of our people do not understand it, because their information comes so largely through plunging ex-speculators, embittered by losses, and through reformers who lack the broad understanding of finance necessary to devise wise reforms, and who have nevertheless had enough financial experience to lend undeserved weight to their proposals. Hence it is of interest to inquire what the Stock Exchange is, and what reforms are really desirable.

Let us first observe that it is not a place where vicious speculation, such as recently described in these pages by C. Norman Fay, is generally indulged in, or where bull and bear movements are artificially produced for the purpose of fleecing the public. The same economic laws which apply to commodities also govern stock prices; and fluctuations in the latter are not, on the whole, any wider than variations in commodity prices. For the past four years the annual average difference between the highest and lowest prices of twenty of our most active railway stocks was twenty-six per cent, whereas the corresponding variation in cotton prices was thirty-three per cent, in wheat thirty-five per cent, and in pig iron, copper, and many other commodities even greater.

Nor is the operation of the law of supply and demand any less apparent in stocks than in merchandise. When corporate earnings are great, prosperity general, and business conditions sound, the demand for stocks raises prices with as much regularity as any economic law displays. So strong is this tendency of prices to seek the level of values that such a great disaster as the San Francisco earthquake caused an average decline of less than ten per cent, and even that was temporary, having been fully recovered in thirty-six days. On the other hand, after periods of extravagance among all classes of people, when business becomes inflated, as in the early parts of 1893 and 1897,

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the large demand for money with which to support this extravagance leads to the general selling of stocks, and the supply thus thrown on the market unfailingly results in a downward trend of prices. Moreover, after bank panics, such as those which occurred late in 1873, 1893, and 1907, stock prices invariably rebound to the level of values as soon as normal trade conditions are restored. Day-to-day fluctuations are often artificial, but the supposition that the important movements are caused by anything more or less than the same economic forces which govern all business is controverted by the entire history of the stock market.

The manipulation of prices, when it occurs, is often due to the speculation of the officers or directors of the companies represented, or to their complicity in improper speculation carried on by others; and the evils of manipulation could doubtless be much reduced by a law forbidding such practices. The ethics of Wall Street already forbid an official to depress the price of the stock he is connected with; but it is equally reprehensible for him to inflate it, because inflation nearly always ends in a crash, and in impaired or even ruined credit. The credit of the Erie Railroad has never recovered from the damaging effects of speculation in its stock by its former officers; and this is also true of the People's Gas Light and Coke Company, the Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company, and of some other corporations. People's Gas stock to this day sells at considerably lower prices than other stocks representing equal assets and earning power, although the speculative improprieties of its officials occurred years ago. This injury to corporate credit and the growing sentiment against such official misconduct is gradually reducing the evils of manipulation; but the reform could doubtless be helped along by legislative action.

Nor is the oft-repeated complaint that the entire capital stock of some of the leading issues changes hands many times a year based upon any real evil. On the whole, stocks do not change ownership much oftener than other property, nor as often as other property for which there is a ready market. In 1906—the year of the largest transactions in history—the total sales on all reputable exchanges in the United States amounted to less than $35,100,000,000, whereas the aggregate value of stocks outstanding exceeded $18,000,000,000. The aggregate sales of all property other than stocks, as shown by reliable statistics of banking, exceeded $160,000,000,000, whereas the total value of all such property was only about $97,000,000,000. It thus appears that our total sales of stocks were equal to less than 195 per cent of the aggregate value of all stocks in the United States, while our total sales of other property were equal to more than 165 per cent of its aggregate value.

That speculation should be concentrated largely in a few stocks, and that the entire issue of these few should change hands often, is in perfect accord with a well-known and salutary economic law. Nearly every great stock, before it can become an investment issue, must pass through its speculative stage—just as every great industry passes through such a stage before it reaches its final position in the business world. Not many decades ago our entire railway industry was in this stage of development, and until Nature can produce oaks without acorns, and men who were never boys, it is quite too much to ask our financiers to produce investment stocks which were not first speculations.

Moreover, the issues in which the trading is heaviest are among the most desirable in point of earning power and future prospects. Last year the heaviest trading was in Union Pacific; and next came Reading, United States Steel, American Smelting, and Amalgamated, in the order given. Union Pacific earns fifteen per cent, and pays dividends at the rate of ten per cent; Reading pays four per cent, and increases about seven per cent per annum in actual intrinsic value; United States Steel earns nine per cent, and pays dividends at the rate of two per cent on its par value, or five per cent on its average market price; American Smelting earns seven per cent; while Amalgamated Copper stock during the ten years of its existence has paid dividends at the rate of five and a quarter per cent on its average market price, and now represents the largest and wealthiest

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copper-producing company in the United States.

That there should be heavy trading in these stocks, representing great and growing business, is both natural and proper; for without it new stocks could not be readily floated, new enterprises of magnitude could not be properly financed, and business would be checked. The first buyer of new stocks is always the speculative buyer; and a sufficient proof of the usefulness of this kind of buying lies in the results actually obtained since 1869, at which time the New York Stock Exchange first became a powerful means of furnishing capital to new enterprises through the sale of stocks; for since then four-fifths of our railways have been built and nearly all our great industrial corporations formed—the capital for these great purposes having been supplied in the first instance largely by the speculative buyer of stocks.

Nor is there any sound reason why the banks should not loan upon such issues as just mentioned. These are excellent collateral, since there is always a ready market for them, and the banks take no chances upon any "water" they may contain, as the loans are made upon the basis of market prices rather than par values. Except in rare instances, stocks are no longer watered as were those of the Chicago Gas and Cordage Trusts in the early nineties. The securities of the Steel Corporation, for example, were sold to the public for about $1,100,000,000, whereas the corporation then had tangible assets of $815,000,000, and the remaining $285,000,000 proved to be a low estimate of the increased value arising from the economies of operating all the plants under one management; for in the short time since the corporation was formed, its assets have been actually enhanced by about $365,000,000 saved out of earnings. Reputable bankers and promoters are no longer willing to risk their reputations in stock-watering schemes; losses to depositors through bank failures have been reduced to less than a twentieth of what they formerly were; and there is no more conservative way in which the banks could handle the people's money than to loan it on stock exchange collateral.

The cost of maintaining our exchanges is small indeed in consideration of the great services rendered to the Nation. In 1906 the aggregate commissions paid to all stock-brokers in the United States did not exceed $88,000,000, while the net amount of interest paid for carrying stocks on margin certainly did not exceed $22,000,000. The total expense of maintaining our exchanges was therefore less than $110,000,000—as compared with $410,000,000 per annum paid by the public for the support of our banks, and $2,350,000,000 for that of our railways. Certainly no one will object to these latter institutions on the ground that they cost more than they are worth; and it should not be forgotten that the stock exchanges greatly facilitate the work of both banks and railways, and also perform other services similar to those of both. They bring together the capitalist and the captain of industry, just as the railway brings producer and consumer together; and thus industry is supplied with the necessary working capital. The railways of the United States require about $800,000,000 of new capital per annum, and this could surely not be supplied except by the issue of stocks and bonds and their sale on our exchanges.

Moreover, the New York Exchange acts as banker for our whole banking system, the brokers borrowing heavily from the banks at times when mercantile business does not really need the money, and returning the funds thus borrowed at times of intense activity in trade. Under our present system the banks would hardly be able to supply the currency required for harvesting and moving our crops, but for the assistance thus rendered. From May to July inclusive large amounts are loaned "on call" to stock-brokers; and in the fall of nearly every year of large crops it is only by calling in a part of these loans that the banks are able to supply the needed funds. But for the demand from stock-brokers in the spring and early summer, these funds would be absorbed by mercantile business, and, thus absorbed, they could be withdrawn at will by the banks, as can a large part of the money loaned to Wall Street. Much of the money there loaned on call virtually acts as reserve, and the banks fall back

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upon it during every crisis. It was this money from Wall Street that checked the panics of 1907 and 1893, and it was the money from Lombard Street which checked the Baring panic.

Nor is there anything objectionable in the moral aspect of real speculation; for the latter may be defined as the assumption of an unusual risk for the sake of a large profit, the speculator differing from the merchant only in the degree of risk taken. The man who buys Union Pacific or United States Steel on margin, because he believes its intrinsic value is greater than its current price, is a true speculator, and is guilty of no immorality. But the man who bought Cordage, or People's Gas, or Interborough, regardless of values, and for the sole reason that he thought he and his associates could befool others into taking the shares bought off his hands at higher prices, was a gambler, and nothing more. The problem which Governor Hughes's Committee, the Board of Governors of the New York Stock Exchange, and the thinking public are grappling with is how to eliminate stock-gambling from our exchanges.

To try to accomplish this, as one has proposed, by forbidding the banks to loan on stocks which are less than two years old, would at one stroke cripple new enterprises and destroy one of the chief functions of the stock exchange; for if the banks were to put new securities under the ban, these could not be sold on our exchanges for lack of buyers; new enterprises of magnitude could not, without extreme difficulty, be supplied with capital, and the usefulness of the stock exchange as a capital-supplying agency would be largely destroyed.

To prohibit the speculation except on margins of forty per cent or more would be almost equally harmful, since it would greatly hinder the sale of stocks by banks, firms, and individuals in need of funds. In a final analysis, the value of the stock exchange to the Nation lies always in the ready market which it provides for the sale of stocks; and if the margin required were so greatly increased, the number or purchasing power of the buyers would be much reduced, and the difficulty of selling stocks would be correspondingly greater. When it is considered that nearly all the banks and tens of thousands of business men own stocks as a sort of reserve fund, to be drawn upon in any time of need, and that these securities thus serve in the place of cash, the serious consequences of retarding their sale may be realized.

There are, however, two principal measures by which stock gambling might, and probably will, be eliminated from our exchanges without injury to legitimate speculation. The first is to require speculators to maintain margins of ten per cent or more, and the second is to require publicity in corporate affairs. The scandalous operations of A. O. Brown & Co. and others have arisen, not from the ten per cent margin, but from the lack of it. Had the margins not fallen below that ratio, such occurrences would never have been possible. The Stock Exchange is itself trying to prevent such operations; but should it not succeed, it might be wise for the law to require stock-brokers to maintain ten per cent margins, just as it requires the central reserve banks to maintain twenty-five per cent reserves.

Publicity in corporate affairs would effectually prevent stock-watering and flagrant manipulation of prices. If complete and reliable yearly statements of assets and earnings had been made by the People's Gas Company in the nineties, they would have shown that its value in 1892 was between sixty and seventy dollars per share; and no amount of manipulation could have inflated it to ninety-five. The progress made since then has resulted in satisfactory statements of earnings by railway companies; but their financial operations and the condition of their treasuries are not shown at all clearly; while the annual statements of many industrial and other corporations throw but little light upon the values of their stocks. However, the policy of publicity in financial affairs has made great progress the past half-century —especially under the administration of Mr. Roosevelt—and when this policy shall have been extended to all companies the stocks of which are sold on our exchanges, and when the ten per cent margin shall be invariably required, the evils connected with stock speculation will have been largely or wholly done away with.

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PUBLIC OPINION

"ONE LANGUAGE FOR THE BLIND"

"One Language for the Blind," which appeared in the issue of The Outlook for April 17, has aroused my keenest interest. I feel sure that a magazine as fair-minded as The Outlook will be willing to give equal publicity to arguments on the other side of the question. Furthermore, I am satisfied that investigation on your part will prove to you that certain of the statements made in the article mentioned are entirely unfounded. A magazine of the standing of The Outlook can do much at this time to advance the interests of the blind by fairly and impartially presenting to the public the truth.

Nominally, the aim of the author in writing this article was to present to outsiders the particulars regarding our notations, and he has misrepresented the case to such an extent that it is not at all an exposition of facts, but a prejudiced argument for the American Braille system. He has utterly ignored the boundless resources of New York Point, and has mixed up in his laudation of Braille a tribute to Moon Type, an embossed line type which was invented for the benefit of those who have lost their sight late in life, and was never designed for the use of young people with acute sense of touch. The literary notation of American Braille is totally different from that of European Braille; yet, in speaking of "Braille," this writer has so deceptively swayed from one to the other that a lay reader could not know just how much to ascribe to the respective systems. Braille is by no means the universal system he implies. American Braille is read in America only, and by the minority here. The fact that American Braille differs in its literary alphabet from the original destroys the uniformity which Braillists claim for their music system. The result is that the name of a piece, the composer's name, as well as the dynamics which occur throughout the piece, will be illegible to one unfamiliar with American Braille. Moreover, it is not an accurate representation of the staff notation. However, it is not my intention here to dwell upon the inconsistencies of that method, which must be regarded from a musical as well as a logical point of view.

Though the discussion of points in the history of embossed literature has little to do with the present course of affairs, many of the statements made by this biased historian are wholly unjustifiable. New York Point would be none the worse for having been invented by any one else than Mr. W. B. Wait, but no sensible reason can be given for saying that he was not the author. When New York Point was invented, the three most important schools for the blind in this country were those at Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. Boston and Philadelphia adhered to different kinds of raised letter type, and American Braille had not been dreamed of. Mr. Wait, of the New York school, was anxious for a universal system; but the line letter system could not be universal, for a large per cent of pupils could not read it, so it was plain that it would have to be a point system. Although Mr. Wait had perfected the New York Point, which he had every reason to believe the best method of tangible writing, he offered to give up his idea if the other two principals would agree on the original Braille as the uniform system. This offer was rejected, and the line letter had a slow but sure death. Years later another type was introduced, called Improved Braille, which, when no improvement could be found, was called American Braille, and still struggles under that name, with no other result than to make matters more complicated than ever, and to deprive those blind people who are subjected to it of the finest literature in embossed print.

A glance at the respective catalogues of New York Point and American Braille will show the superiority of New York Point both in numbers and in selection. A vast amount of religious literature, text-books for all grades, complete courses in foreign languages, and the Rolfe edition of Shakespeare, with notes, are treasures that only the New York Point library can afford.

Let me call your attention to the economic side of the question, for it is one of the greatest importance in all printing for the blind. Our books are necessarily large and cumbersome, yet the seeing friends of American Braille want to overburden us with books almost twice as big as the same books would be in New York Point. Is this a kindness to the blind? In your article there was some mention of the Ziegler Magazine, but it was not stated that the readers of their Braille edition are deprived of much that is afforded the New York Point readers each month, because the magazine is limited to fifty pages, and fifty pages of New York Point contain much more than fifty pages of Braille. If you are interested in the welfare of the blind, the experience of the editor of that magazine would be worthy of your consideration.

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It is hard to believe that Miss Keller's letter was written by one who has had practical experience. It is perfectly evident that continual reading will wear upon the fingers, but it is the points, not the system. The shape and size of the point used is purely arbitrary, of course. The point used by most of the New York Point printers has been decided upon after tireless experiment. Usually it is somewhat larger than the Braille point, and far more durable. Personally, I find it an excellent point to read. If Miss Keller's sense of touch is so dull that she cannot readily count the points that make up a character in New York Point, she has my sympathy in her struggles with Braille, where the same obligation rests upon her, and where the points are more scattered, and to my touch far less tangible and distinct.

Perhaps I should say, in closing, that I have not been brought up in New York, and have not had any influence to prejudice me except my own practical experience with the two systems, both of which I read. New York Point is not even the first print I learned, but since I have learned it I much prefer it to any other.

CALVIN S. GLOVER.

Kingsbridge, New York City.

Another correspondent presents the advantages which, in his judgment, are possessed by New York Point over American Braille:

1. Its resources for addition of new signs and characters are practically unlimited. The limit of the number of possible characters in American Braille is sixty-three.

2. New York Point has a consistent, logical, adequate, and well-developed notation for literature, containing full, true capitalization and punctuation. American Braille is illogical, insufficient, and has no capitals.

3. New York Point has a complete, adequate, logical, and unambiguous notation for music. Braille, of any kind, is insufficient for the purpose of representing the staff notation, and is ambiguous. As for American Braille, it is incapable of adaptation to musical notation.

4. Repeated experiments, impartially conducted, have demonstrated beyond the possibility of doubt that American Braille requires for the same matter from seventy to three hundred per cent more space than New York Point. This entails a corresponding loss of time in reading and writing, and in cost of paper, plates, printing, and binding.

5. The symbols which are furnished by the New York plan of construction are well adapted to any language, but it is both absurd and unfair to attempt to impose upon other languages an arrangement suited to English, unless this arrangement is equally adaptable to these other languages. Otherwise the people using them would be deprived of the very advantages of saving time and space which we deem to be of such great value. Until a universal language shall have been adopted and put in practice, it is idle to talk about a universal point alphabet. When the time comes for a universal point alphabet, sound judgment and the need of saving time, labor, space, and money will determine that it should not be American Braille, or any variant of original Braille, and that it must be constructed on the principles employed in the New York Point system.

FIGHT THE WHITE PLAGUE ALL ALONG THE LINE

This is the day of the great awakening of the people to the knowledge of the great white plague. Only now, within the year, have we realized that to each one of us comes the duty, the responsibility, the privilege of working together, not to cure the sufferers only, but to wipe out the infection itself—and how? By co-operation. That is the magic word; the key that unlocks the prison doors. Knowledge must come first, but knowledge without human sympathy is useless. Now that the knowledge has been gained, the rest, the interest, the care, the material aid, will never fail us in this land where truly we all love our brothers. Therefore we may face the future hopefully. The only question is, how best to spread and utilize this knowledge, and the answer to that is many-sided and beset with problems. All about us we see abundant evidence of what is doing—in the many tuberculosis clinics; day camps; home care; class instruction; dispensary treatment; the pouring out of money to carry on the labor of love in caring for those who need. The first striking instance of this was the enormous interest aroused in the sale of the Red Cross stamp for the crusade against tuberculosis. Seeing all this, and rejoicing that all who can are trying to help those who need and to protect those who will be stricken later, if we do not make use of what modern science teaches we may not stand still in any self-complacent sense of our own good deeds. Just because much is doing—much more than ever before—we must use our keen intelligence and strain every nerve, not only to do the new work, but to do as well as before, along the old lines, in the future, really to do more and better what we have done in the past, as well as to do the new work. With the arousing of the

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Nation to this duty and necessity has come one great danger. For years there have been in various parts of the country a few sanatoria for consumptives. Oh! so pitifully few they are compared to the great number of those who need their care, it is not wonderful that they should be, to a degree, overlooked, for the moment, in the vast effort put forth to begin the new treatment at home and in the cities, in what seem easier and cheaper ways. But it is a very serious thing for the existing sanatoria, whose work has been tried and tested and approved by the best physicians and experts, that the interest, which means the financial support absolutely necessary to carry on their work of mercy, should be even temporarily lessened or diverted. Without adequate funds these institutions must curtail their work and close their doors to those who knock. Every hospital that has established a special tuberculosis clinic knows that, much as they can do, not a week passes that physicians and nurses do not report cases beyond their help; cases that must be sent away from home to a sanatorium for the greater care there given, for the absolute rest and teaching as to self-help, the purer air and better nourishment, if the patient is to be restored to a self-supporting basis. Six months or a year away from the struggle in the crowded conditions of city life are essential to many of those who go eagerly seeking health to the newly opened clinics in New York. And, to give that needed respite, that care and teaching, the sanatoria for tuberculosis must be supported more generously than ever before. Because we are giving partial and most necessary relief to thousands here, therefore must we give the complete cure to the numbers now greatly increased since so many more are brought to the notice of the doctors who know and rightly estimate their great necessity. This is the danger that menaces such an institution as Stony Wold. The story of its creation, its ever-increasing power and efficiency, both in direct care of patients and indirectly through those returned from it who spread what they have learned there, in their homes and among their friends, has been told too often to need repetition in The Outlook. The facts about Stony Wold set forth in the Tuberculosis Exhibit of last autumn spoke for themselves. All we ask is that those who have at heart the great cause of helping to cure the sufferers should realize that such an institution cannot be carried on inexpensively. Each patient must have such nourishment, such care and training from expert nurses and teachers as can only be given at a cost per patient of two dollars per day. To do it at this price taxes the strength and ingenuity of all who work there, but at that price it is done, and in the best way. The managers of Stony Wold ask all who will to come and see the work. They need an annual income of $50,000, secured by regular subscriptions. And this special year, when all this great country is striving to wipe out tuberculosis and to save valuable lives for needed work, the income for the support of Stony Wold (and of other sanatoria) has decreased in inverse proportion to the increased demand for their services. Surely those who have set themselves this mighty task will not let such institutions close for lack of means. Surely we may count upon the needed money to care for the sick, and to send forth patients *cured* and so trained that they become a band of missionaries spreading the gospel of hygiene in the tenements, teaching, as only those can who have learned by experience, what may be done to save others from this dread disease. Further information will be gladly supplied from, or contributions may be sent to, the executive office of the sanatorium; the address is, Stony Wold Sanatorium, 118 West Sixty-ninth Street, New York City.

ELIZA DOANE GARDINER.

A PLEA FOR THE RESTUDY OF REVIVALS

Revivals have often enough been made the subject of more or less thorough study. But within a few years two sciences that deal with certain features of social action have given us a new approach to an understanding of the methods of revivals. I refer to the application of psychological suggestion to the influence of individual action in large collections of people, and to the sociology of the crowd, as that phrase is used. Then ethics is having more to say about the proper ways to secure the best action of the will. Specialists in these three sciences have begun to turn our attention to their applieation to the study of revivals, and have already gone far enough to convince some that the whole subject should be carefully gone into by trained students.

For my own information I have lately taken up a little statistical study begun some years ago with surprising results. The Moody revival in Boston and Massachusetts in 1877 was taken, beginning naturally with my own denomination—the Congregationalists—taking the ten years preceding 1877 and then the next ten years, including in the latter the year of the great accessions under the Moody revival, when meetings were held in Boston for three months and eighty-two of the Congregational churches of the State reported revivals. In the five years preceding

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1877 the additions to the Congregational churches of the State on confession of faith were 16,421; and in the following five years, including the year of the Moody revival, when they rose to 5,698, they were 13,664, or 2,757 less. The additions in the Boston churches themselves, which had been steadily increasing before the revival, were only 170 more in the five years 1877–1881 than they had been in the five years before. And for the ten years following the Moody revival, and including, of course, the large additions of 1877, the number added to the Congregational churches of the State was 705 less than in the ten years before that revival. There was a little better state of things among the Baptists, whose churches in the State gained 634 in the five years of the revival period over the preceding five years. But they suffered in the years immediately following, and with the Congregationalists began to gain decidedly only in 1883. Confirmations in the Protestant Episcopal Diocese of Massachusetts were also affected in a similar way, but to a less extent. The were only 50 more in the second five years than in the first five. All the above figures are for the entire State. The statistics of the Conferences of the Methodists, as they do not follow State lines, are less easily obtained. But the number of probationers, the only easily available tests with the Methodists, shows even a greater loss after the revival than the Congregationalists. To sum up, the Baptists, Congregationalists, and Episcopalians for the entire State, and the Methodists for the Boston and Lynn Districts, taken together, show a loss of 4,469 in the total of members received by baptism, confession of faith, on probation, and by confirmation in the five years 1877–1881, over the number received in the preceding five years.

I have examined the statistics of the Congregational churches of Massachusetts and Connecticut in a similar way for the results of the revival of 1858, which were immediately much greater than those of the year 1877, and probably more widely distributed over these States. While the exact figures are not yet fully understood, it is clear that a similar and possibly greater decline followed then. The Civil War in 1861 probably affected the result somewhat, but apparently not so very much.

These statistics are given, not as conclusive, but as indicative of the need of further study along this line. The scientific student of social problems often has experiences similar to those of the geologist and of other students. The cropping out of a peculiar formation sometimes points unmistakably to its appearance in other places, and so widely as to establish a law. If we could have a commission of experts in statistics, psychology, sociology, and ethics, men trained to the use of scientific methods, together with men experienced in religious work, who should go over this entire subject thoroughly, it might be that great good would result. At present we are expending a great deal of money and much effort in work whose results are far from being accurately or even scientifically estimated. Perhaps the Federation of Churches can take this up. Or at least let some one great church, before it goes farther in this kind of evangelism, carefully study the subject in a way deserving the name of study. Let us not be content with desultory thinking on this serious problem.

(Rev.) SAMUEL W. DIKE.

Auburndale, Massachusetts.

A REMEDY FOR AUTOCRACY

Referring to your article in the issue for April 10, under the head of "The Autocratic House of Representatives," you quote largely from two authors, but neither proposes a remedy. Would it not lessen the autocratic power of the Speaker—even if the appointment of the Committees were still left to him—to deprive him of the power to select the Chairmen of the Committees? Is it not a fact that the Chairman, being appointed by the Speaker, often exercises the same autocratic power over his Committee that the Speaker does over the House? If this is true, why not remedy the evils by letting the Committees select their own Chairmen? Such Chairmen might be elected for the whole session, or for each bill brought before the Committee, as it saw proper. This would certainly expedite work by dividing labor and responsibility; sub-committees would then be unnecessary, as each member of a Committee might be Chairman of some one or more measure. Would not this self-governing plan deprive the Chairman of much of his dictatorial power, and the reports more fully reflect the views of each body? A Chairman who became obnoxious to the majority would soon cease to act as Chairman. Above all, a Committee thus organized would be a self-governing body, and therefore more in harmony with our institutions.

DUDLEY E. JONES.

Little Rock, Arkansas.

DARNING AND ECONOMICS

A professor in Vassar College, writing in The Outlook of April 17 on "The Economics of Spending," points out the folly of darning stockings, "to wear just once more," in these days "when three pairs of substantial machine-made hose are sold for a dol-

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lar," and asks, "Who will compute the ultimate cost of a pair of fifty-cent hose that have been conscientiously mended for ten weeks by a woman whose earning capacity ought to be fifty cents an hour?"

I am a working woman and I darn my stockings, and have doubtless darned many a pair "to wear just once more," since there must always be a last time of wearing for all stockings. But I do my mending after my wage-earning day is over, or before it begins, or on Saturday afternoon, or a holiday. The average woman does not have an earning capacity of fifty cents for every hour of the twenty-four. If in the time which I spend in mending a pair of stockings I could earn enough to buy a new pair, I should lose the difference in value between the new and the old. But I do not darn my stockings at a time when I would otherwise be earning money, and neither does any woman who has sense enough to earn her living. That woman would be very foolish who would spend time which might be more pleasantly occupied in mending stockings when "three pairs can be bought for a dollar"—if she has the dollar. But if she hasn't the dollar, or, having it, needs it for something else, she is the gainer by every pair she mends to wear "once more," whatever economics may say on the subject.

FLORENCE I. ADAMS.

Brookline, Massachusetts.

A PROTEST FROM THE STANDARD OIL COMPANY

An editorial in The Outlook for May 1, 1909, reads:

> We do not believe it is generally known how successful the Department of Justice of the United States Government has been in its prosecution of cases against lawbreaking corporations. The daily newspapers give so much space to a sensational case like that involved in the unsuccessful imposition of the twenty-nine-million-dollar fine of the Standard Oil Company that a large part of the newspaper-reading public gets the impression that somehow or other the corporations are always successful in evading the consequences when they commit lawbreaking acts.

You will grant, I think, that the average reader will conclude that The Outlook intends to state that the Standard Oil Company committed "lawbreaking acts," in consequence of which the twenty-nine-million-dollar fine was imposed.

You will recall that I have kept The Outlook fully informed of the proceedings and decision in this suit, by sending you copies of the original records. You will remember that the verdict rendered was "Not Guilty." The press, in general, has been kept accurately advised about the case.

Under the circumstances, the Standard Oil Company certainly is justified in feeling aggrieved at the publication of statements, almost libelous in character, making inferences and assuming conclusions not sustained by the record.

Such misstatements might perhaps be overlooked in the editorials of a daily journal, written hastily between meals, when they should not be in the case of The Outlook, with ample time for deliberation, and with a record of professed fairness and conservatism.

May we hope, should The Outlook have occasion to again refer to the case involving the twenty-nine-million-dollar fine, that nothing but the truth will be published.

H. C. FOLGER, JR.

26 Broadway, New York, May 4, 1909.

The editorial from which Mr. Folger, a director of the Standard Oil Company, quotes related to the frauds in the affairs of the so-called Sugar Trust. We had no intention of intimating any opinion regarding either the guilt or the innocence of the Standard Oil Company. The point we endeavored to make was that the Government's defeat and the Standard Oil Company's victory in the sensational twenty-nine-million-dollar case had created a popular impression that the Government is rarely successful in prosecuting great corporations. The Sugar case ought to do much to modify this erroneous impression. We regret that the paragraph to which Mr. Folger objects should seem to any reader susceptible of the interpretation which Mr. Folger gives to it.—THE EDITORS.

AN INTERNATIONAL TOAST

Would you publish in The Outlook the toast given by President Roosevelt to the Russian and Japanese before they sailed for Portsmouth to make terms for the settlement of the war?

A SUBSCRIBER.

On Saturday, August 5, 1905, Mr. Roosevelt introduced the plenipotentiaries of the two nations on board the Mayflower, and on that occasion offered the following toast and wish: "Gentlemen, I propose a toast to which there will be no answer, and which I ask you to drink in silence, standing. I drink to the welfare and prosperity of the sovereigns and the peoples of the two great nations whose representatives have met one another on this ship. It is my most earnest hope and prayer, in the interest not only of these two great powers, but of all civilized mankind, that a just and lasting peace may speedily be concluded between them."

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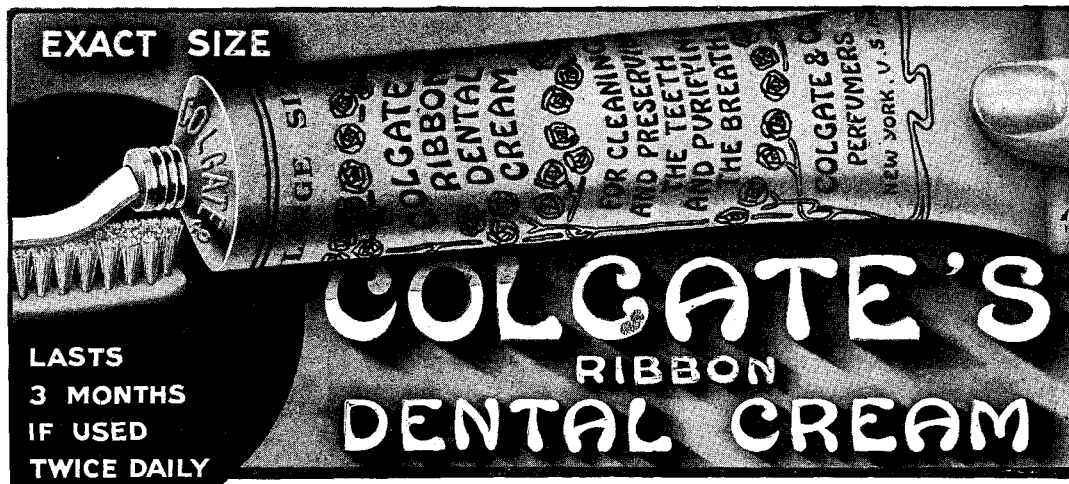

Fifteen Feet of Cream in this **Five Inch** Tube

and none wasted because it—

Comes out a Ribbon—Lies Flat on the Brush.

3 Points of **ECONOMY**

1. MORE CREAM—almost half as much again as in the average tube.
2. LESS CREAM USED—half as much Cream comes out of our flat opening.
3. NO WASTE—our flat ribbon of Cream cannot roll off the brush.

DELICIOUS—ANTISEPTIC

Send 4 cents for 42 inches of Cream in trial tube—three weeks supply.

COLGATE & CO., *Makers of Cashmere Bouquet Toilet Soap.* Dept. Z, 55 John Street, New York

A Mother Writes:

"I am trying so hard to get our boy into your School at Canaan, but I am not able to pay anything for his support. His Father has been sick for nearly three years, and has not earned one dollar.

"I have worked at most everything in that time, and am run down and not able to do much—the boy, who should be a help and comfort to me, is more of a drawback.

*"Sometimes I feel as if I could not stand it any longer—**must I see my boy grow up wild because I have no money?** I will beg of God t-night, as I never have efore, to help me with the burden that begins to feel awful heavy."*

It costs $200 a year to give a wayward boy the benefit of the moral and spiritual training provided by **The Berkshire Industrial Farm.**

We have many applications from needy boys whose parents can only pay half—many more from those who can pay nothing. These are often the most appealing cases.

Would *you* not like to feel that *you* had saved a boy from a downward career?

Let us tell you how it can be done. Send for booklet.

HARRY HALL,
Treasurer
100 William Street, New York

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NOT DRUGS

Food Did It

After using laxative and cathartic medicines from childhood a case of chronic and apparently incurable constipation yielded to the scientific food, Grape-Nuts, in a few days.

"From early childhood I suffered with such terrible constipation that I had to use laxatives continuously going from one drug to another and suffering more or less all the time.

"A prominent physician whom I consulted told me the muscles of the digestive organs were partially paralyzed and could not perform their work without help of some kind, so I have tried at different times about every laxative and cathartic known, but found no help that was at all permanent. I had finally become discouraged and had given my case up as hopeless when I began to use the predigested food, Grape-Nuts.

"Although I had not expected this food to help my trouble, to my great surprise Grape-Nuts digested immediately from the first and in a few days I was convinced that this was just what my system needed.

"The bowels performed their functions regularly and I am now completely and permanently cured of this awful trouble.

"Truly the power of scientific food must be unlimited." "There's a Reason."

Read "The Road to Wellville," in pkgs.

Ever read the above letter? A new one appears from time to time. They are genuine, true, and full of human interest.

RHEUMATISM

Tartarlithine

gives better results than any other remedy for Rheumatism. The promptness of its action is in many cases astonishing. Does not affect the heart nor irritate the stomach.

Tartarlithine rarely fails because it supplies the blood with the necessary substances to dissolve and remove the poison of rheumatism—uric acid.

Free Sample and our booklet on the cure of Rheumatism sent on request.

McKESSON & ROBBINS
93 FULTON STREET NEW YORK
SOLE AGENTS FOR THE TARTARLITHINE CO.

MILKWEED CREAM

We want every woman in America to send for a liberal free sample of Milkweed Cream and our booklet telling of the wonderful results that follow its daily use. Write to-day before you forget.

This is the one toilet cream that has proved its merit. It is nature's own aid to beauty—a skin tonic. A very little applied gently to the face, neck and hands, night and morning, cleans out the tiny pores, stimulates them to renewed activity and feeds and nourishes the inner skin and surrounding tissues. The certain result of this is a complexion clear and brilliant in coloring—a skin soft and smooth without being shiny—plump, rounded cheeks from which all lines and wrinkles have been taken away.

Sold by all druggists at 50 cents and $1.00 a jar, or sent postpaid on receipt of price. Don't forget to write for the liberal free sample.

F. F. INGRAM & CO.
72 Tenth Street, - DETROIT MICH.

Are you deaf?

If your hearing is affected in any way or to any degree you are sure to find great relief with the aid of the lately perfected scientific hearing device.

THE AUROPHONE

You cannot judge the value of the Aurophone by what you have seen of any other hearing device, and many of the present owners of these instruments have found absolute relief after all others had failed.

The Aurophone is practically **invisible.** It is extremely **Simple,** being a powerful miniature telephone which magnifies sound waves a hundred fold, and in many instances

actually improves the natural hearing.

Read what these prominent business men say:

Mears Ear Phone Co., N. Y.

Gentlemen: Knowing how many fake devices have been offered deaf people, I am moved to offer you this testimonial, unsolicited, hoping it may convince some other deaf person that there is something real in the Aurophone. If at any time any one in this section would like to hear from me personally regarding your instrument, I would be pleased to tell what it is to me. Respectfully,

F. I. HUBBARD, Alameda, Cal.

Mears Ear Phone Co., N. Y.

Gentlemen: I have been deaf for many years and have tried every kind of hearing device. I find the Aurophone the only effective aid to the deaf. *Wishing you success, I am, very truly yours,*

J. B. GOSHORN, 169 Plymouth Place, Chicago.

A SPECIAL REQUEST TO YOU

Whether you are interested in the Aurophone or not, and whether you answer this advertisement or not, we beg of you not to confound this instrument with the much advertised worthless variety. We want you at any rate to believe us and our claims for the Aurophone. We wish to make you who are deaf hear again. If we cannot enable you to hear we do not want your patronage.

We would like to tell you more about it
Write to-day for booklet and terms of trial

MEARS EAR PHONE COMPANY, Inc.
Suite 847, Monolith Building, 34th St., New York City

BRANCHES: CHICAGO, 65 E. Randolph St. PHILADELPHIA, Witherspoon Bldg. BOSTON, 120 Boylston St. BALTIMORE, 310 N. Hofman St. LOS ANGELES, A. Hamburger & Sons. SAN FRANCISCO, Baldwin Drug Co. WILMINGTON, DEL., The Lawton Store. TORONTO, T. Eaton Co. MONTREAL, 234 E. Sherbrook St. BUENOS AYRES, S. A., Saxe Medicine Co. PARIS, FRANCE, 27 Boulevard des Capucines.

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This is the Oldest "Doggone" Advertising Idea in the World.

The reason this illustration is used is because it is a real photograph of a real Bull Dog and a real Rubberset Shaving Brush. It shows that the bristles of a Rubberset Shaving Brush can not even be pulled or twisted out of the setting, while those of an ordinary brush just fall out when the rosin, cement or glue setting is softened by hot water. The bristles of a

RUBBERSET TRADE MARK Shaving Brush

are held in a solid bed of hard, vulcanized rubber—water-proof, soap-proof, alkali-proof, wear-proof. You can boil a Rubberset if you like—it does it good. Rubberset Brushes are patented and are the only brushes held in hard rubber. The name on every brush guarantees it.

At all dealers' and barbers', all styles and sizes, 25, 50, 75 cents to $6.00.

To the average man we commend the $1.00 brush.

RUBBERSET COMPANY,

SALES DEPT. No. 42 HUDSON TERMINAL, 50 CHURCH ST., NEW YORK CITY. MAIN OFFICE, FACTORY AND LABORATORY: 66 FERRY ST., NEWARK, N. J.
BRANCH OFFICES—BOSTON, CHICAGO, SAN FRANCISCO, MONTREAL.
LONDON BRANCH: 2 STONECUTTER ST., LONDON, E. C., ENGLAND.

BERSET TRADE MARK Shaving Cream Soap

Composed of Glycerine and Cocoanut Oil—well known skin healers. Lathers freely. Softens the beard perfectly. Contains no free alkali to smart and dry the skin. The face feels smooth and soft after shaving. Sanitary and convenient. 25c a tube. Send dealer's name and 4c in stamps for 10c sample tube.

RUBBERSET COMPANY.

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Republic
Staggard Tread
Tires

THIS Staggard Tread *is the only anti-skid* device which is durable enough to be used all the time. Dotted rubber treads and steel studs are so short lived that most drivers use them only in wet weather, *but the Republic* Staggard Tread Tire outlasts smooth treads. These tires have solid rubber protuberances which are so long and so big that the thrust of the wheel never tears *them off.*

Republic Rubber Co.
Youngstown, Ohio

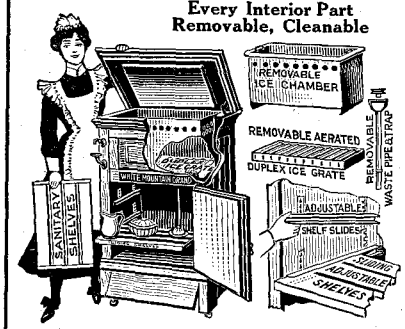
New York City, 229 West 58th St.
Boston, 735 Boylston St.
Philadelphia, 830 N. Broad St.
Chicago, 116 Lake St.
Detroit, 246 Jefferson Ave.
St. Louis, 3964 Olive St.
St. Paul, 180 E. Fourth St.
Rochester, 208 South Ave.
Kansas City, 1612 Grand Ave.
Council Bluffs, Ia.
Denver, 1721 Stout St.
San Francisco, 166 First St.
Cincinnati, 8th and Walnut Sts.
Toledo, 2815 Monroe St.
Indianapolis, 208 S. Illinois St.
Cleveland, 1120 Euclid Ave.
Pittsburg, 136 Sixth St
Seattle, 1419 Broadway.
Los Angeles, 1046 So. Main St.
Milwaukee, 457 Milwaukee St.

Republic Staggard Tread Pat. Sept. 15, 22, 1903

WHITE MOUNTAIN

"The Chest with the Chill in it"

Every Interior Part Removable, Cleanable



No Repair Bills

Lifetime of Service with Proper Care

Infallible Circulation insured in every corner by our famous "MAINE DUPLEX" Ice Grate. Smallest possible Ice Consumption means true economy.

"IN OVER A MILLION HOMES"

Hundreds of styles, Hundreds of sizes. We alone make Solid Stone Lined Refrigerators, White as Snow. We issue a Beautiful Catalogue and Scenic Booklet.

Refrigerators

Maine Manufacturing Co.
NASHUA, N. H.

Largest Refrigerator Factory in the World

LEWIS & CONGER

Housefurnishing Warerooms

(Established 1835)

EVERYTHING NECESSARY for Kitchen, Laundry, Dining Room, Library, Pantry, Halls, Bath, and Stable; Cutlery, Cooking Utensils, China and Glass, Housecleaning Articles

130 & 132 West 42d Street

GRAY MOTORS

6 HORSE POWER COMPLETE 1, 2 & 3 CYLINDERS. 3 to 30 HORSE POWER

$895.00 IMMEDIATE DELIVERY.

Price—$60 and upwards. Write for color catalog today—with beautiful color print of yacht Grayling—fastest cruising motor boat of its length and beam in the world. Most complete marine catalog ever published.

GRAY MOTOR CO., 56 Leib St., Detroit, Mich.

Professional cooks find

LEA & PERRINS SAUCE

the most valuable of all sauces—the peerless seasoning.

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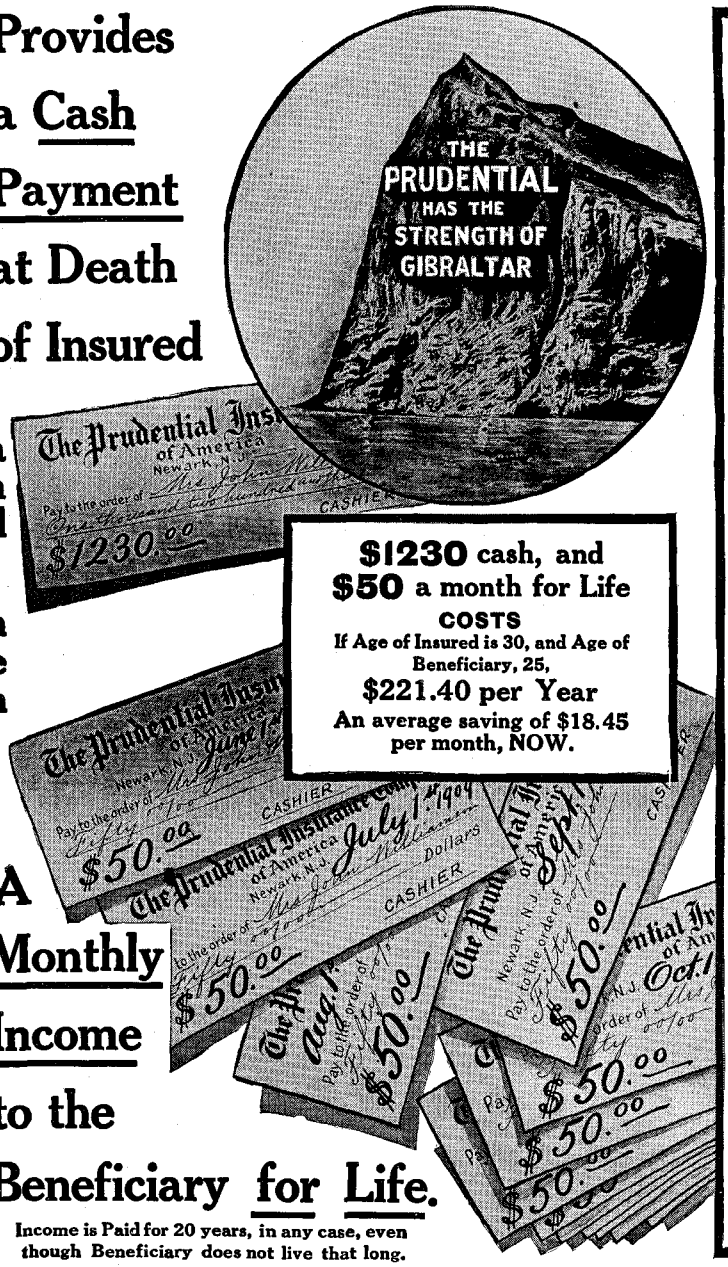
The Prudential

Newest Monthly Income Policy

Provides a Cash Payment at Death of Insured

and then

A Monthly Income to the Beneficiary for Life.



$1230 cash, and $50 a month for Life COSTS

If Age of Insured is 30, and Age of Beneficiary, 25,

$221.40 per Year

An average saving of $18.45 per month, NOW.

Income is Paid for 20 years, in any case, even though Beneficiary does not live that long.

The Greatest Life Insurance Protection ever Offered to the Family.

The one kind of Life Insurance Policy of most practical value to Women and Children.

It is the policy your wife would like, because it gives her a **sure Monthly Income for Life.**

This is the Safest Way to leave your life insurance. The Monthly Income cannot be encumbered or depreciated. The principal cannot be lost. All worry about safe investment is eliminated.

The Income can be arranged for in Multiples of $10 per month, up.

Write for Particulars and Cost for You.

Give both your age and age of beneficiary.

Address Dept. 19

The Prudential Insurance Company of America

Incorporated as a Stock Company by the State of New Jersey

JOHN F. DRYDEN, President — **Home Office, NEWARK, N. J.**

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"*Onyx*" Hosiery

Extract from speech delivered in Congress, April 6, 1909, by

Hon. Sereno E. Payne

Chairman Ways and Means Committee

"LORD & TAYLOR are the largest Importers of Hosiery in this country. These people buy in the regular way and do not knowingly handle any merchandise made by the smaller manufacturers, preferring the merchandise made in the large establishments, where better regularity of manufacture is maintained, thus handling the somewhat expert grade of merchandise."

This official statement of facts should cause the consumer to demand the "*Onyx*" Brand. For Men, Women and Children. From 25c. to the highest grade made. May be had from most first-class shops in every part of the United States. Accept no substitute.

If your dealer cannot supply you, write to Dept. M, and we will direct you where to procure "*Onyx*" Hosiery.

Lord & Taylor *New York*

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